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ABSTRACT

The second of two documents designed to train paraprofessionals to work with mainstreamed mildly handicapped children presents a teacher's guide approach to inservice and preservice training. The following four topics are covered in the section on preservice training (sample subtopics in parentheses): the teacher (forming a good working relationship, complementary roles); the students (the labeling process, changes in social attitudes, legal rights of the handicapped); the school (confidentiality, parent involvement); and the instructional process (program planning). Six units deal with the following inservice topics (sample subtopics in parentheses): assessment (formal and informal assessment); long-range objectives; short-range objectives (task analysis, chaining and reverse chaining); instructional strategies (decreasing inappropriate behaviors, establishing new behaviors); lesson planning (classroom organization); and lesson evaluation (self evaluation, evaluation of materials and activities). (CL)

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ASSIST

ASSOCIATE INSTRUCTIONAL SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS

TEACHER'S GUIDE

EC120459

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ASSIST PROGRAM 2

MILDLY HANDICAPPED/ MAINSTREAMING

ASSIST: Associate Instructional Support For Teachers

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The use of feminine gender terms or any titles that connote feminine gender in these materials is merely for convenient reference to people of both sexes and should not be construed as implying sex limitations.

A JOINT DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

OF THE

INDIANA UNIVERSITY DEVELOPMENTAL TRAINING CENTER

AND

INDIANA DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

DIVISION OF SPECIAL EDUCATION

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This book is dedicated to the process of change:
for it is only through change that all individuals are free to be.

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PREFACE

What is ASSIST? How Does It Help? How Does It Work?

Introduction

This is the second program of a three part series designed to prepare paraprofessionals to work effectively as instructional personnel within educational settings. This package addresses itself to paraprofessionals who will work in mainstreamed educational settings with students labeled mildly handicapped.

The issue of paraprofessional utilization has been a perplexing one for administrators and teachers. In some cases the paraprofessional appears to have a competitive rather than a complementary role in the classroom. In other cases, teachers believe, and justifiably so, that they spend as much time planning for the paraprofessional as for the students. Nevertheless it has been demonstrated that special education paraprofessionals, when appropriately utilized by teachers, can be a valuable asset in the classroom. It is unfortunate that while teachers want and need the services of paraprofessionals, there is difficulty in utilizing them as effectively as possible.

Four interrelated problems appear to be the cause of these difficulties. It would appear that there is:

1. Confusion regarding the appropriate role responsibilities of paraprofessionals;
2. Failure to build training programs for paraprofessionals based on actual classroom needs;
3. Lack of systematic efforts to involve teachers in the actual training of paraprofessionals to make sure that the training is consistent with their practices, and
4. Failure to build training programs for paraprofessionals which do not interfere with the ongoing job demands of paraprofessionals and teachers.

Recognizing the gap between paraprofessional training and subsequent classroom utilization, the Indiana Department of Public Instruction, Division of Special Education, in conjunction with the Departmental Training Center located at Indiana University, views this training program as an effective method of closing this gap. It accomplishes this in three important ways. First, it provides paraprofessionals with both a positive philosophical orientation toward handicapping conditions and the practical knowledge and skills necessary to translate philosophy into pedagogy. A major thrust of the program is to assist each educational team to specify the role of the teacher's aide as an instructional associate, and to delineate the major duties clearly given their particular situation. Second, it offers you, the teacher, the opportunity not only to receive training in paraprofessional utilization and program management, but also

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you, the teacher, will have the opportunity to build upon and expand ASSIST so it will have even greater relevance to your individual classroom needs.

ASSIST, however, is not a cookbook. It does not provide answers to all questions or solutions to all classroom and human relations problems — nor is it the intent of ASSIST to do this. Its focus is to provide a process through which complementary role definitions can be developed and then utilized to provide quality instruction to students labeled mildly handicapped.

Third, the ASSIST training program is conveniently used. The materials can be read at home, at school, or wherever it is most convenient for you and your paraprofessional. The program is self-paced, also. You can read as much of the material as you desire at one sitting — a chapter, a couple of pages, whatever. Therefore, your team can go through the program at a speed that does not interfere with your daily duties. Naturally, the ASSIST training does take some time — any effective training program will. Every effort has been made, however, to make sure that the ASSIST training is neither a burden for you nor for your paraprofessional.

Objectives of ASSIST

In the process of developing these materials, we spent much time talking and working with paraprofessionals, teachers, principals, and program directors to be sure our materials matched classroom needs. The overall objectives of the program are to provide instructional associates with knowledge of:

1. The role of a paraprofessional as an instructional associate, the role of the teacher as a program manager, and the ways in which both of you work together for the benefit of the students.
2. Past and current trends in society's beliefs and attitudes toward handicapped individuals, and how these beliefs and attitudes affect programs and services for the handicapped.

and skills in:

1. The implementation of instructional and instructionally related duties.
2. The implementation of non-instructional duties.

ASSIST Materials

ASSIST is a coordinated program for training. Each package contains a *Sourcebook for Instructional Associates* and a *Teacher's Guide*.

The *Teacher's Guide* and *Sourcebook* are identical in content except for some additional instructional pages in the *Teacher's Guide*. They are divided into two parts: Preservice Training and Inservice Training. The Preservice portion of both books has been divided into four major sections with several sub-sections. The Preservice section can be read by the instructional associate before she begins work, or just as she is beginning. A good relationship with you, the

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teacher, the students, and the school is encouraged in the Preservice section. The instructional associate receives general information which will help her gain a positive orientation toward helping mildly handicapped students.

Inservice units should be undertaken after the instructional associate begins work. The Inservice units teach the skills necessary for being a helpful instructional associate. Inservice has six major instructional units with several sub-units. Since these units are self-paced, you may spend more time on some units than others. Even though the instructional associate will do most of the work on her own, remember, you, the program manager, are the primary trainer during Inservice. As you are training the instructional associate to work in your classroom, you may wish to spend more time on particular units that have the greatest relevance to your classroom needs. For each Preservice and Inservice instructional unit, there are self-checks called ASSIST Activities. These are not tests, but a way of providing the instructional associate with immediate feedback on her level of understanding of the material for each of the units. Your *Teacher's Guide* is also your training manual and therefore contains additional suggestions and activity directions.

Supplementary Films

ASSIST makes available a series of 16mm films which are designed to be an aid to training. They should provide the instructional associate with additional information, clarify major points, and demonstrate skills the instructional associate will be using in her instructional and instructionally related activities.

The films are available through the State of Indiana Instructional Materials Resource Center for Handicapped Children and Youth free of charge.

I.M.R.C.
Box 100, Butler University
4600 Sunset Ave.
Indianapolis, Indiana 46208

Phone: (317) 633-5259
Hours: Monday 8:00 a.m. - 7:00 p.m.
Tuesday - Friday 8:00 a.m. - 4:30 p.m.
(Except State Holidays)

There are three reels of film. The first reel contains Preservice films. Reels number 2 and 3 supplement the Inservice units. The films may be requested from the center by phone, letter, or direct visit.

Since discussing the ASSIST training with other teachers and instructional associates can be a rewarding and beneficial experience, your local Director has been encouraged to show these films during one or two district-wide inservice sessions, if possible. However, you may order the films for your particular team only, if you wish, or if district-wide inservice sessions are not available. A description of the ASSIST films and the ASSIST Film Activities are included in the back of your *Teacher's Guide* and the instructional associates *Sourcebook.* Although it takes some time to get the films and set them up, we strongly recommend that you take time to view them together. The films add more realism to the training.

Summary

As comprehensive as ASSIST may be, the instructional associate may still have questions and concerns that are important. You, as the teacher and the primary trainer, should provide the instructional associate with specific information, suggestions, and ideas to help make ASSIST work for both of you. You are encouraged to talk with your instructional associate about the material she has read as often as you can. Naturally, this may be more difficult for those of you with little free time during the day or week for discussion or planning. ASSIST simply recommends that you communicate with each other about the training material as often as you can given your particular situation.

Finally, to do the training well, get to know the content of the *Sourcebook* before giving it to the instructional associate. Become comfortable with ASSIST, know how it works, and most of all, make it relevant to your classroom. In so doing you will find the ASSIST training to be easy and unthreatening. The minimal time you put into ASSIST at the beginning will save you much time and effort later.

FOREWORD

This program is designed to prepare paraprofessionals to enter the field of special education. It may also be used with paraprofessionals who wish to expand or enhance their knowledge and skills in working with students in mainstreamed settings.

You are well aware that special education is in a state of transition. Stereotypic attitudes and beliefs regarding the nature and goals of education for those labeled handicapped are being discarded in light of more humane and relevant approaches to education and delivery of service systems. The developmental model of continual growth and change is rapidly replacing the defect and disability tenets of the medical model.

Role definitions are also in a state of transition and expansion. Child advocacy and program management are new roles assumed by teachers. The role of paraprofessionals has also been expanded. No longer can we view paraprofessionals as responsible only for non-instructional activities, such as house and record keeping. With appropriate training, paraprofessionals can assume complementary roles to teachers in the instruction and instructionally related areas.

The purpose of this training program is to train paraprofessionals to assume these complementary roles under the leadership and guidance of you, the teacher — the program manager.

You are by now aware that the terms "instructional associate" and "program manager" have been used to describe the complementary roles of you and your paraprofessional. It is our belief that while you and the instructional associate have different functions and roles in the classroom, together you form an instructional team. The primary goal of ASSIST is to provide the instructional associates with the knowledge and skills necessary to assist them in becoming valuable members of the educational team. Although you are undoubtedly performing some or all of the functions of the program manager, another goal of ASSIST is to develop or expand your skills in this role.

The flexibility of the training program enables it to be of benefit to teachers regardless of their teaching arrangement and style.

It is our hope and belief that through ASSIST, you and your instructional associate will together form a complementary relationship that will bring about positive and lasting changes in your students.

H.J.S.
G.A.B.
Bloomington, Indiana
August, 1977

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PART 1

PRESERVICE TRAINING

THE TEACHER AS PROGRAM MANAGER

Introduction

As a teacher of the mildly handicapped, you are very aware of the changes occurring in delivery of services to individuals so labeled. Parental involvement, due process, better facilities, and new insights into programs and practices, are just a few of these changes. With these changes have come changes in your role, including additional responsibilities for developing, implementing, and evaluating programs for your students.

You are also aware that these obligations cannot be fulfilled solely by you. These changes demand so much time and effort that you must have help. A team effort including yourself, the instructional associate, other school personnel, and parents is necessary to meet adequately the individual needs of all the children. Education of mildly handicapped individuals requires a coordinated effort of all involved parties. Your responsibility is to organize and coordinate this effort.

This section will focus on how you carry out the process of program management and the related activities. As you read this section, you will quickly become aware that you already are performing all or most of the functions described. It is not the intent of ASSIST to change your role, but to clarify it, so you may better utilize your instructional associate in a manner that complements your efforts.

The Process of Management

If you examine your daily responsibilities, you will find that the greatest portion of your time is spent in planning, organizing and evaluating. You plan schedules of activities both for your students and yourself. You develop instructional activities for each student on a general basis breaking them into daily and weekly plans. You plan conferences with school personnel and parents to assist you and to gain more information. You then take your plans in all of these areas and organize them into an instructional program for each of your students. You must also organize and coordinate such programs and related activities within the routine of your classroom and school. As the primary planner and organizer, you must also evaluate on a formal and informal basis what has happened with the plans. How well is everything working? What changes should be made? What changes can be made? How are the students progressing? Throughout the day, probably without realizing it, you are making constructive evaluations of how smoothly everything is running. Even during instruction, you are evaluating how the lesson is progressing and are ready to change your behavior, the materials, or activities, to reach the objective of the lesson.

This process of management will vary with the individual style of each teacher, but essentially all teachers, to a greater or lesser extent, are engaged in these types of managerial functions. It is from the process of management that your role as program manager, with its specific responsibilities, is derived.

The Activities of Management

The goal of education for the mildly handicapped is no different than for any other students: is to assist them in becoming participating members of society to the extent they can manage and enjoy. It is through appropriate educational or instructional programs that this goal is reached.

In your role as program manager, you have four major functions:

1. Assessing the developmental level of each student.
2. Developing instructional objectives and programs for each student.
3. Coordinating personnel to assist you in reaching the objectives.
4. Evaluating the programs.

These functions, unique to you as program manager, are built into the instructional process. In addition to the actual implementation of instruction, you must plan, organize, and coordinate the personnel to achieve these program goals within the instructional process. The final Preservice chapter, "The Instructional Process", gives you a step-by-step description of how your role as program manager is operationalized. It is important that you realize that this process of management and the related activities of your role as the program manager may be somewhat different than the process and activities of other program managers. Your individual style, students and organizational constraints will affect how you operate in this role. These factors will also influence to some extent the specific ways in which you utilize your instructional associate.

The Program Manager and the Instructional Associate

The role of the instructional associate is to assist you in fulfilling your functions as program manager. This person should be a resource for you, and an extension of you in the classroom. This is accomplished by the instructional associate performing instructional, instructionally-related, and non-instructional duties that complement your activities.

For the paraprofessional to be truly a complementary and valued person in your classroom, you must spend time in defining her specific role and relationship to you as the program manager. By providing her the basic knowledge and skills to work with you, ASSIST will help a positive working relationship form faster and easier. You will spend less time explaining the instructional process to the instructional associate and giving directions for activities that need to be done. You will only need to expand and refine that role so that it becomes complementary to you.

Like any other cooperative effort, it will take time for everything to run smoothly especially if the instructional associate is new on the job. At first, your instructional associate may be afraid to be open about her concerns. You may feel uncomfortable having another adult in the classroom observing you teach. Both of you may be too selfconscious about any mistakes you may make in the classroom. Therefore, it is important that you create a climate of open exchange, so that questions and concerns can be dealt with before they become problems.

For experienced instructional associates, you will be able to discuss different problems and the steps of the instructional process regarding the children you serve in greater depth. Even with experienced instructional associates, ASSIST helps organize their previously acquired knowledge and skills and provides the educational team a means for honestly discussing any problems the team has faced in the past. The true test for your team is to apply the ASSIST training to your classroom.

As the instructional associate will undoubtedly look to you as the model from which to learn, your behavior and professional attitude are critical. Praise your instructional associate. Encourage her. Communicate with her. If you view yourself as the program manager and leader of the instructional team, with your instructional associate as your partner, then you are well on your way to ensuring a more productive satisfying year for the both of you and for your students.

ASSIST has attempted to provide you and your paraprofessional with the basic knowledge on how all of this comes together in the classroom situation. The specifics on how all this comes together in your classroom will be decided by your team as you go through the program.

Overview to Pre-Service: Teacher Directions

The preservice material covers the special relationship the instructional associate has with: 1) you, the teacher, 2) the students, and 3) the school. The instructional associate is also provided a positive philosophical orientation toward handicapping conditions which will help her serve mainstreamed children appropriately.

You should familiarize yourself with the content of the *Sourcebook* and the activities in the *Sourcebook*, before giving these materials to your instructional associate. ASSIST recommends that you give the instructional associate her *Sourcebook* as soon as possible. Some of you will be acquainted with your instructional associate before school begins. Others may not know her before the first week. Whatever your circumstances, the earlier the instructional associate is able to cover the preservice material, the sooner she will understand her role as your complementary partner and the sooner you can begin inservice training.

There are several ways to present the materials to the instructional associates. You can present them personally to the instructional associate. In other cases, several program managers, or even the school faculty may desire to arrange an orientation workshop to show the preservice films, acquaint the instructional associates with the total school team, etc. Choose the format most appropriate for your particular situation.

Above all, feel free to modify the materials to meet the needs of your school or classroom at any time. Good luck! ASSIST truly hopes that the materials enable you and your instructional associate to enjoy a more productive satisfying year for the students and yourselves.

OVERVIEW TO PRE-SERVICE

The pre-service portion of the training program focuses on the special relationships you have with:

1. The Teacher
2. The School
3. The Student

You will learn how you as an instructional associate will work with your teacher and the students in both instructional and non-instructional areas.

You will examine how you as an instructional associate should relate to your school, your co-workers, and your students' parents.

Before you can work with and feel at ease with the children, you must know something about them. You will learn that each child is a unique individual with different abilities, motivations, and interests. You will learn how classroom instruction and activities should relate to the particular needs of each child.

You will also learn about the social, ethnic, and cultural differences of children. You will learn how classroom instruction should relate to these social differences.

You will learn about some of the newly acquired legal rights of mildly handicapped students.

You will be introduced to the instructional process and will learn how to:

- effectively relate to handicapped students as individual persons
- effectively deal with behavior problems
- effectively use instructional materials

Finally, you will have an understanding of the field of special education —
its history, future, and your role in it.

Chapter 1

THE TEACHER

Complementary Role

Extension of Teacher

You may be about to begin a new career as a teacher's aide — or you may be an experienced aide looking for better and more effective ways to work with students labeled educable mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, learning disabled, or mildly handicapped. Whether you are a new or experienced paraprofessional, you are an important and needed person. Your major role is to assist your teacher by bringing to the classroom your present talents and skills and then acquiring new knowledge and skills to be a more effective member of the classroom team. As an extension of your teacher, you will utilize these abilities by providing direct assistance to students and by performing tasks which will free the teacher's time to fulfill her functions.

In your job, you may be called by many different titles and labels. So far you have been referred to as a teacher's aide and paraprofessional. In your school you may be called by other professional terms. For example, you may be called a classroom assistant or simply an aide. Regardless of the label attached to you, you are a paraprofessional. This means that you have a special relationship to your teacher, students, and school. The contribution which you can make depends on the interest and enthusiasm which you bring to your job.

Paraprofessionals Help

An example of the importance of paraprofessionals is found in the field of medicine. The medical profession has had paraprofessional nurses or Licensed Practical Nurses for quite some time. Although they do not have all the skills and knowledge of doctors and registered nurses, they have demonstrated their importance by using their complementary skills and knowledge to provide needed help to the physicians, nurses, and to the patients directly. There is evidence to show that paraprofessionals, although somewhat new to special education, can make as valuable a contribution as

have Licensed Practical Nurses. Paraprofessionals within special education have been successful in providing assistance to students and teachers in all levels of programs from pre-school through vocational training with students labeled both mildly and moderately handicapped.

Historical Overview

Even though paraprofessionals have demonstrated that they are important and valuable resources to both teachers and students, historically aides in education have been used primarily as teacher assistants for clerical and classroom housekeeping activities. It was believed that if aides could grade papers, keep classroom records, decorate bulletin boards, and keep materials in order, the teacher would then have more time for lesson planning and other teacher related duties. Aide programs such as these often used volunteer mothers and high school students to work in classes as clerical assistants.

The use of salaried aides became more common during the 1960's, but the ways in which they were utilized did not vary much from the volunteers of the 1950's. Additionally, training activities to prepare aides usually focused on only the non-instructional aspects of the position. This training, if it occurred at all, usually took place one or two days prior to the start of school, with little or no on-the-job or inservice raining. Undoubtedly, training programs such as these limited the teachers' opportunity to utilize paraprofessionals for the maximum benefit of the students.

Philosophy of ASSIST

Goal of ASSIST

Although you will be expected to perform certain of the non-instructional tasks which have been described, it is the philosophy of ASSIST that the major contribution that you can make as a paraprofessional is to assist your teacher by providing instruction to students, or by assisting your teacher in the preparation of instructional materials and resources. It is the goal of ASSIST to prepare you to work as a team member with your teacher by spending 60-80% of each school day in instruction and instructionally related activities. Many educational teams, today, are already working toward this goal. In these cases, ASSIST will make it easier for your team to reach its objective.

Since your training will prepare you to use the majority of each day interacting with students in partnership with your teacher, your title should reflect this level of involvement. For this reason, you are called an "instructional associate". (Many educational teams have begun to use the abbreviation "I.A.", to make day-to-day conversation easier.) This more than most other titles, truly reflects your complementary role to the teacher. In your program, however, you may be called an aide or classroom assistant. Remember, it is what you do that is most important, not what you are called.

You are an Instructional Associate

This is not to say that you can, or even should, perform all of the activities which your teacher performs. Nor does your title imply that you have all the knowledge which your teacher has acquired in both college training and classroom experience. The ultimate responsibility of the teacher is that the students learn, and that educational programs be developed for each student to reach this goal. It is her responsibility to utilize school personnel, community resources, and parents to implement such programs. In this way, your teacher is responsible for, and manages each student's program. For this reason, she is known as a "program manager". You are her associate in implementing and evaluating these programs. However, to do this you must have knowledge and skills in educational programming, or as it shall now be called, the instructional process. The greater your knowledge and skills, the more valuable you become.

Forming a Positive Working Relationship

Expectations

You and the teacher must relate effectively and professionally with each other. Your teacher, who has the responsibility for developing instructional plans for each student, must view you as a resource and extension of herself and not another person in the room to plan for and continually supervise. If your teacher must frequently stop her activities to remind you to begin a lesson which she has prescribed for a student, or search for materials which she has asked you to prepare, then you will probably not be viewed as a complementary and needed person.

Anytime we begin a new job with new people, it takes a while to learn the routine and learn what is expected of us in the job. It may take some time to come to know the people with whom we will be working. The beginning of school can be somewhat overwhelming. However, if you take time to observe your teacher, learn the classroom routine and learn what is expected of you at specific times each day, then things will begin to fall into place for you. In general, you will need to learn to ask for assistance in ways and at times that do not interrupt the teacher's activities. You will need to follow to completion any responsibilities agreed to between you and the teacher.

Partnership

If you and your teacher are to develop a partnership, it is important that you talk with each other, ask questions, and share ideas in a manner that is honest, positive, and constructive. Since the teacher is the program manager, any questions or ideas you have concerning the instructional process should be discussed with the teacher. Eventually, you will be able to anticipate each other's needs. Then, you will demand less of the teacher's time. When you are able to understand and discuss with your teacher the goals of instructional programs for each student, work with groups of individual students, evaluate what you have done, and share ideas with your teacher, you will be well on your way to developing yourself as an instructional associate. You will then be viewed as a skilled and vital member of the educational team.

Share Ideas

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Factors Influencing Your Complementary Role

The lack of enough time for planning and discussing classroom activities during the school day or during the school week is a major problem facing many educational teams. While sharing ideas asking questions, and discussing the ASSIST training are essential activities, it will be more difficult for your team to do this if there is little time available for these needs. You will have to learn when it is most convenient for your teacher to talk with you, so you won't interrupt important instructional activities.

Also, if you and your teacher serve a large number of children, or if you see a different group of students during different periods of the day, your team's ability to discuss each student's needs will probably be more limited. If you lack a private place to talk, you may be less able either to discuss classroom problems or discuss the ASSIST training with your teacher. You may even find that you have to do much of the reading on your own without a great deal of help from the teacher. If you assist several different teachers, you may find it difficult to form an equally deep working partnership with each and every teacher.

Whatever your situation, make the best of it. Be understanding when the teacher cannot give you as much time as you might like. Remember, your teacher is struggling to do the best job she can; so must you.

SUMMARY

We have said that you and your teacher each have specific responsibilities in the classroom, that these responsibilities are complementary to each other and that they depend on certain skills and knowledge. Further, it has been said that during the majority of each day you would be utilizing these skills in either direct instruction or in instructionally related areas.

However, if you are to do these things, you must first understand the purpose of instruction, the various aspects of the instructional process, and the roles and responsibilities your teacher, as a program planner, and you, as an instructional associate, have within this process.

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ASSIST Activity 1: *Role Definition* — Chapter 1

Objective: To identify the role responsibilities of instructional associates

Fill in the blanks.

1. The major contribution you as an instructional associate can make is to assist your teacher by providing d ______________ i ______________ to students.
2. You should be able as a team member to spend approximately ______________% of your day in instructional and instructionally related activities.
3. This does not mean you perform the same d ______________ your teacher performs.
4. To become a more valuable member of the team you should increase your k ______________ and s ______________ in educational programming.
5. To be a needed person, you must learn to share i ______________, communicate h ______________, anticipate the teacher's n ______________, and ask questions without i ______________ with the ongoing activities.

ASSIST Activity 1:

1. direct instruction
2. 60-80%
3. duties
4. knowledge, skills
5. ideas, honesty, needs, interfering

ASSIST Activity 2: *Role Responsibilities*—Chapter 1

Objective: *To differentiate between the roles of the program manager and the instructional associate.*

Place a T in front of those duties for which the teacher is primarily responsible and an S in front of those duties which should be shared by the teacher and instructional associate.

1. __________ Gathering instructional materials.
2. __________ Deciding whether a lesson plan will be used.
3. __________ Relating with parents.
4. __________ Making grade reports.
5. __________ Selecting instructional objectives for a child.
6. __________ Providing direct instruction to students.
7. __________ Supervising children at seatwork activities.
8. __________ Evaluating the instruction.
9. __________ Constructing academic tests.
10. __________ Coordinating the instruction with other school personnel.

ASSIST Activity 2:

1. S
2. T
3. S
4. T
5. T
6. S
7. S
8. S
9. T
10. T

ASSIST Activity 3: *Responsibilities*—Chapter 1

Objective: To develop a list of paraprofessional responsibilities.

Try to develop a list of responsibilities that you believe to be appropriate for instructional associates who work with mainstreamed children.

Instructional responsibilities:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.

Non-instructional/Instructionally-related responsibilities:

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

ASSIST Activity 3:

Instructional examples

1. Tutoring a child
2. Collecting observation data on playground
3. Leading an oral reading group

Instructionally Related examples

1. Grading papers
2. Putting up a bulletin board
3. Arranging instructional materials in the classroom

NOTES:

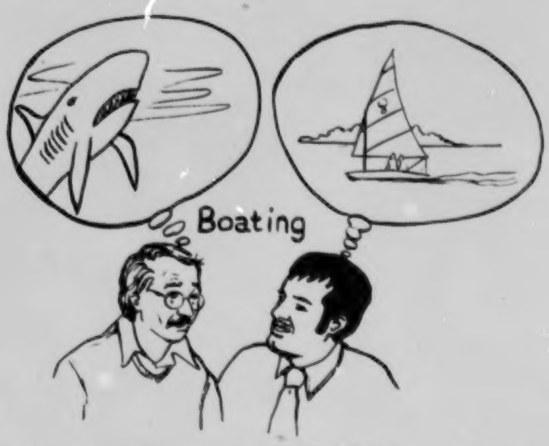
Chapter 2

THE STUDENT

The Labeling Process

Labels are part of our daily lives. Objects are labeled to help us communicate with others. When a person tells us about a dress or a car, we understand what they are talking about. We have had prior experiences with these common objects, and therefore immediately know what someone is talking about when they tell us they just bought a new dress or car. We form an image based on prior experiences and knowledge we have about these objects. You don't have to see a boat, for example, to know what someone is talking about when they tell you about their new boat. You automatically see an image of a boat. The image you have in your mind may or may not look like the actual boat the other person is describing. Your image is based on the previous experiences you have had with boats, what others have told you about boats, and the knowledge and information you have about them.

You may have "good" feelings about boats if you associate them with a pleasant weekend at the lake. Perhaps you enjoyed the weekend at the lake when you went fishing in a boat, water skiing or sailing. On the other hand, you may have "bad" feelings about boats, if for example, the boat over-turned on the lake during the weekend. Therefore, the images we form in our mind are interpretations of reality that are based on our experiences and knowledge of what are presumed to be facts.



Opinions

These examples show that labels are helpful to us when communicating with others. They also provide us with mental images about the objects we are thinking about or discussing. This is also true when we are talking about people, except that the entire process becomes more complicated. Not only do we apply labels to individuals, but also to entire groups of individuals.

Our opinion of a person is based on how we view that individual's thoughts and actions. If the person has done or said something which hurts us over and over again, then our opinion of that person will probably not be too high. Sometimes we may not actually know the person, but because we have heard so many "bad" things about him or her, it would be difficult to meet and like that person. The same is also true for groups of people.

Prejudice

We all are prejudiced to some extent although some do not like to admit this. Prejudices are usually based on certain beliefs we have about certain groups of people. These beliefs are based on opinions we have formed over a long period of time. Perhaps our parents, other family members, or people we've admired, were prejudiced against one or more groups of people — blacks, Jews, and homosexuals, to name just a few. Some people believe that all the members in a given group exhibit the same traits and mannerisms. These traits and mannerisms are usually considered to be "bad", "evil", or just plain "no-good."

Stereotypes

This process of taking a set of characteristics, and applying them to a group of people is called "stereotyping." We have all heard that "blacks are lazy", and that "homosexuals are emotionally disturbed". Even though we have information which contradicts these statements and others like them, we still find it difficult to expel them. This is because our prejudices did not come about over-night. It took years to form some of these opinions and to get rid of them is difficult and takes time.

Information, new experiences, and exposure to different types of people will help to alleviate the misconceptions we have. Soon, one realizes that people are people; some are lazy, some emotionally disturbed, and some are tight with their money regardless of their race, skin color, or religious background.

Let us now turn to individuals who are labeled or called "mentally retarded," "learning disabled," or "emotionally disturbed." What is *your* image or opinion of people so labeled? We have all heard certain statements about them.

Labeling of the Handicapped

"All mentally retarded children cannot learn."

"All emotionally disturbed children should be put in an institution with their own kind."

"You can always tell a mentally retarded person by the way he looks."

"Emotionally disturbed people come from families with 'bad blood'."

"All learning disabled children cannot sit still."

These statements and others like them are unacceptable. To understand how these kinds of statements originated, we must look at how individuals who were labeled mildly handicapped have been viewed and treated in the past. Unfortunately, the views of the past are still held by many today.

The History of Mildly Handicapping Conditions

Viewed in different ways

Individuals viewed as different or as having special needs, whether they be mentally retarded, physically handicapped, or whatever, have been viewed and treated in different ways since the beginning of history. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries they were seen as being linked with "evil spirits" or the devil. These handicapped persons were often put on public display or put into jails or asylums for the criminally insane. During the 18th and well into the 19th century, parents kept their severely handicapped children at home.

The situation for mildly handicapped children was very different, however. Until the early part of this century, mildly handicapped people were rarely seen as being any different from other people in the community. Most families in the

nineteenth and early part of the twentieth century lived on small farms. Parents were primarily responsible for their children's education which was concerned mainly with the everyday skills needed to farm. The emphasis upon reading and arithmetic which is so strong today was not nearly as great then. Since most schools were private, formal education was a privilege mostly for the wealthy. There were no mandatory school attendance laws at that time. If a child was fortunate enough to attend school and did happen to experience academic or behavioral difficulty, the child would usually quit school with minimal loss of social prestige or self-esteem.

Rapid
Social Change

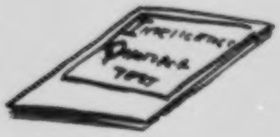
But the country was rapidly changing. The growth of industry was luring more families from their small farms to work in the factories in the cities. Industry grew as scientific technology advanced. To support this growth, industry needed a more literate skilled worker. Academically related knowledge was gaining much more social value. By World War I, the need for more education was so great that many more public school systems were created. Soon, laws were passed requiring school attendance. For the first time, a child's success in school was considered by society to be crucial for adult success. Many children who were formerly considered to be "normal" members of the community were now being defined as handicapped due to school-related problems.

In agricultural societies today, the situation is comparable to this country before industrialization and urbanization. Mild behavioral handicaps unlike physical problems are just not recognized. Until there is a socially valued formal educational experience, people are unaware of mildly handicapping conditions.

Standardized Tests

As stated before, the growth of science was instrumental to the growth of industry. This increase in knowledge about the sciences and scientific methods encouraged study not only about the physical world (physical sciences) but also about people themselves (social sciences). Social scientists attempt to study human behavior through scientific methods. Sometimes social scientists gather information just to increase our knowledge about people. At other times, they gather information in order to solve human behavior problems. One of the first attempts to solve a human behavior problem through scientific techniques took place in Paris, France at the beginning of this century.

In 1905, the Minister of Public Instruction of Paris, France was concerned with the need of providing special services to "dull" students. To accomplish this task, a scientific way of identifying dull students was sought. Alfred Binet was commissioned to devise a technique which measured student intellectual capabilities. Since the problem was school related, Binet wanted to produce a test that covered school related intellectual concerns, such as vocabulary, comprehension, arithmetic, etc.



First, he observed large numbers of children to identify the average school-related abilities of children the same age. Next, items were selected for the test that reflected the abilities of approximately 60% of children of the same age In this way, a student's performance on the test could be measured against a standard, namely, other students of her age group. From this comparison an "IQ" score was derived. According to the IQ test, average or normal intelligence was equal to an IQ of 100. Children scoring below 85 were considered "dull".

Abusive Labels

Although the original intent of the IQ test was to provide additional beneficial services to children, the IQ test soon became a tool of human abuse. Degrading names such as "idiot," "imbecile," and "moron" were given credibility by some early social scientists who applied ranges of IQ scores to these offensive labels (idiots scored below 25, imbeciles 25-50 and morons 50-76). As a result of this action, many people who were never suspected of having any mental handicap by their peers were now labeled morons and mental retardates solely on this basis of an IQ score.

The IQ test also began to be misused as a means of denying civil rights and equal opportunity. In this country, the American revision of the Binet test (Stanford-Binet) was used to screen low scorers out of the armed forces. All European immigrants entering New York City were given an IQ test. Some low scorers were denied entry, and others could not become citizens. A few people claimed that "bad blood" was the cause of mental retardation and that if these people married, they would reproduce more "bad children", thereby lowering the nation's average intelligence. This scare, known as the "eugenic scare," lasted for about a quarter of a century or until about 1935. During this time, human and civil rights such as the right to marry, to vote, and to obtain employment were often denied due to a low IQ score. Beginning in 1922, low scoring children were removed from regular elementary classrooms and segregated in special classes for the retarded. Sometimes this was done from a sincere desire to provide beneficial services, but more often to remove a source of frustration to the regular classroom teacher.

Denied Human Rights

The same process took place concerning children who scored in the normal IQ range but whose social and emotional behavior were deemed inappropriate to the classroom setting. Standardized tests for social and emotional adjustment were produced using the same techniques as for intelligence. The result was the same. Given the advent of mass education and standardized testing of social and emotional behavior, large new sectors of the population, previously considered to be functioning normally by most people in the community, were given the disability label "emotionally disturbed."

The Beginning of Change

Not until 1950 were the more obnoxious labels for retardation (idiots, imbeciles, morons) finally changed. People with an IQ between 50-75 were referred to as mildly retarded or educable mental retardates; people with an IQ between 25-50 were referred to as moderately retarded or trainable mental retardates; and people scoring below 25 were referred to as profoundly retarded or custodial mental retardates. During the 1960's some mildly emotionally disturbed children began to be referred to as behaviorally disordered. This was done since some educators felt the need to distinguish between severe emotional *disturbance* that effects the functioning of the total personality and *disturbing* behaviors that are milder in nature and that mainly affect interpersonal relationships.

Also in the 1960's, another category of children of mild exceptionality was created — the learning disabled. These children, in general, were students who scored normally on an IQ test, did not manifest emotional disturbance, but who were still academically underachieving. Again, the intent of the new label was to provide beneficial services to children who needed different educational programs. Unlike the other traditional categories, however, there was no standardized test that educators could agree upon that differentiated the "learning disabled" from "normals". As a result, children have been labeled learning disabled for reasons ranging from neurological impairment to teasing

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the cat. Nevertheless, the number of special classrooms for the "learning disabled" continues to grow.

Changes in Social Attitudes

Useless Labels

The use of more and different labels for mildly handicapping conditions and the provision of segregated services began to be questioned strongly in the middle 1960's. A major charge was that traditional labels were generally useless and were not leading to needed services. Consider the labels "educable retarded" and "emotionally disturbed". How much do they really tell you about a child's particular strengths, particular weaknesses, her potential for growth? These labels have little value for educational programming or instruction.

Self-Fulfilling Prophecy

Furthermore, there was no convincing evidence that segregated special classes were truly helping mildly handicapped children. In fact, the charge was made that the traditional labeling of the various types of mildly handicapped children was not only useless but harmful. Some educators claimed that labeling introduced a cycle known as the "self-fulfilling prophecy." There are two negative aspects of this cycle. First, evidence indicates that when a person is treated or thought of in a certain way, that person usually behaves in that way. This is true of all people, whether they are called "normal" or "mentally retarded." If, for example, people expect you to be funny, you will try to be funny; if people think of you as outgoing, you probably will be. Labels give us a message about what to expect of people and this message can be good or bad. Unfortunately, in most cases of mild handicaps, the message has been a bad one.

As a result children labeled mentally retarded tend to think of themselves as unable to do most school work and so do not produce very much effort. This decrease in motivation further guarantees poor school performance. Similarly, if a child is labeled emotionally disturbed, she tends to play the part rather than attempt to change her behavior.

The second negative aspect of the self-filling prophecy is that the traditional labels affect teacher behavior. Evidence indicates that if teachers presume a child to be "retarded" or "disturbed" and hence have limited potential, they will tend to set goals too low or "water down" the curriculum. Most teachers of mildly handicapped children have learned to be on guard against this "expectancy effect." You, as an Instructional Associate, must also be aware of this possibility. Labels assigned to children by society or educators must not be a factor that prevents children from reaching maximum potential.

Another very significant criticism was the charge that traditional labeling practices and segregated special classes discriminated against children from lower socio-economic classes and from minority cultures (Blacks, Chicanos, American Indians, etc.). By 1960, 60 to 80% of children in special classes were minority culture children or from low-income homes. The misuse of the standard IQ tests was a crucial concern. Remember that when the IQ tests were constructed, items for the tests were selected that reflected the abilities of approximately 60% of children of a particular age group. However, the children used in this country as the standard group for the test in the 1920's were all white, middle class, and English-speaking. The constructors of the test knew that the inclusion of children of other cultures, classes, and languages, would change the character of the test items. The wanted items were representative of school-related knowledge and attitudes, i.e., white, middle class, and English-speaking. The result is an IQ test that tends to be an "Anglo" (white, middle class, and English-speaking) test. Therefore, children from other cultural situations may lack certain "Anglo" knowledge or may possess attitudes contradictory to "Anglo" attitudes. A look at some of the items on IQ tests reveals the problem. "Who wrote Romeo and Juliet?" is obviously knowledge of western cultures. "Where is Chile?", and "What should you do if you find a purse on the street?" would evoke the answers "South America", and "Give it to the Police" from Anglo children, but may also evoke "on the stove" and "keep it" from culturally different children, which may be correct answers according to the norms of their culture and/or class situations.

Culturally Inappropriate Tests

The same problems exist for standardized tests for social and/or emotional adjustment. The tests were standardized on white, middle-class, English-speaking, and emotionally healthy children. Items such as, "Should you be nice to people you don't like?", and "Is it nice to thank people who have helped you?", will evoke different answers from children from different cultural backgrounds. A child experiencing academic difficulties might realistically answer "yes" to an item such as "Do your classmates think that you cannot do well in school?" Yet, this response will be scored as a "wrong" or "maladjusted" answer on some tests of emotional adjustment.

There is even some difficulty using standardized tests with Anglo children, especially if the child is from a low-income home or from an area of the country with a unique culture. For Anglo children as a group, a low IQ score indicates very *probable* low achievement in school relative to other children of the same age. For any one child, however, the ability to predict low achievement from a low IQ score is much weaker.

For any child of any culture or class, the use of standardized tests has limited value. The use of standard test scores alone for placing children in special classes, or for keeping people from holding certain types of jobs, has been successfully challenged in the courts. You, as an Instructional Associate, must realize the limitations of standard tests for diagnosing each student's particular strengths and weaknesses and for planning educational programs.

Obviously, individuals from different cultures behave differently. One of the primary aspects of any culture is language. Some students may come from homes where a language different than English is used. Too often in the past, children of different languages were labeled retarded when the real problem was the inability of the school to take the child's language difference into account. Even within the same language there can be differences. Most often, these differences take the form of different dialects. People of different cultures and people from different areas of the country often speak with these "accents" or unique language patterns called dialects. Too often in the past,

children

kudacon

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children of different dialects were told that their language system was "poor", or "incorrect". Problems such as these occur in other behavioral areas also. For instance, wearing a hat indoors is unacceptable behavior in some cultures but hardly a major issue in others. Reactions to social conflict may especially differ according to cultural backgrounds.

Traditionally, these differences between the "Anglo middle-class" school expectancies and the different behaviors of other cultures and/or classes have caused problems for too many minority children. Children are referred to special classes for so-called inappropriate behavior and for low standardized test scores and these two procedures together lead to an excessive number of minority and/or low income children removed from regular educational programs. The outcome is that the child is considered normal by her parents and neighbors, but retarded or disturbed in school, i.e. the child is a six-hour retardate.

Also, handicaps, especially mild handicaps, are often situational in nature. Children may see others as normal at home but abnormal in school, normal on the playground but abnormal in the classroom, etc. Even within the classroom, children may be well adjusted in one-to-one relationships with adults but maladjusted in large groups. Applying a general label such as emotional disturbance to a very specific and situational handicap such as poor relationships with authority figures is an example of what is known as a "spread effect." This means that an individual's specific handicap is generalized to her "emotional disturbance," and "learning disability" must be used very cautiously. Whatever the child's handicap, her essential humaneness makes that person more like than unlike other people.

Fortunately, social attitudes are changing. People are aware that our society is composed of different cultures each with its own beauty, integrity, and dignity. Each culture brings to our society different contributions — heroes, heroines, art, music — that strengthen our society overall. More people understand that different cultures should not be categorized as "better" or "inferior" but as equal. All people deserve respect, no matter what their culture, income, or IQ score. Instructional Associates such as yourself can help to carry this message. With the help of your teacher, you will learn to be sensitive to the different cultural backgrounds and patterns of children in your classroom. You will learn to note similarities and differences in life styles, values, and customs among children. You will learn to utilize the different histories, values, and art of the different cultures of children in your class to strengthen the instruction. You will know the importance of respecting each child as a human being with potential. You will learn not to be sidetracked by general labels that do not truly help you plan for the child. You will not be misled by test scores, rumors, or prejudices which will interfere with your instruction of the child. Above all, you will learn to become an advocate of the human dignity and potential of children who have been identified as mildly handicapped.

You Are an Advocate

An advocate is someone who will attest to another's positive personal qualities and who helps maximize another's opportunities. For example, a friend who refutes untrue gossip about you or someone who agrees to be a good reference for a job application are advocates for you. Advocates use their knowledge and skills to help people about whom they are concerned. To be an advocate of a mildly handicapped person, you must be sincerely concerned about their welfare. You must vouch for their personal qualities in school and out of school when situations develop that enable you to do so. You must use the knowledge and skills you gain as an Instructional Associate to help the mildly handicapped gain the highest developmental potential possible. You must be a champion of their human and civil rights. To do this, you will need some awareness of the important laws and court cases that affect the mildly handicapped.

Legal Rights for the Handicapped

Many handicapped children have never experienced equal protection under the law guaranteed to them by the Fourteenth Amendment of the United States Constitution. Parents have had to struggle to gain adequate services for their handicapped children. A growing frustration with inadequate services led many parents, friends, educators, and legislators to seek more and improved special education services for handicapped children. The year 1927 marked the first legislated special education services for physically handicapped children. During the fifties, services for the retarded began to mushroom. And finally, mandatory special education laws have been enacted in numerous states in the 1970's guaranteeing exceptional children the right to an appropriate public education.

There seems to be a rapidly growing trend throughout the country to turn to the courts to seek judicial relief as a means to allay some of the frustrations which have persisted in education.

Legal Landmarks

One of the most historically important cases in education was *Brown v. Board of Education* in which the United States Supreme Court overruled a 50 year precedent of "separate, but equal" education. This case mandated a unitary desegregated school system.

Brown v. Board of Education gave impetus for many court cases involving handicapped children. The trend began in the late 1960's in a couple of suits in California brought by Mexican-American parents on behalf of their children against local school practices of labeling their bilingual children mentally retarded. The label was based on scores the children received on standard tests given only in English. The courts ruled in favor of the parents and held that the educational testing procedures were in error. Appropriate legislation then changed the testing procedure throughout the state. At about the same time, parents in Utah gained entrance to a public school program of their two trainable children through the Courts. Fortunately, again improved legislation followed.

The full impact of these court cases culminated for handicapped children in the early 1970's when a State of Pennsylvania law was challenged. This law allowed children access to public education only after they reached a mental age of 5 years. This, of course, resulted in the educational exclusion of many children for several years. The Pennsylvania Association of Retarded Citizens (PARC) brought a class action suit against the state for these discriminatory practices on behalf of all mentally retarded children. The court held that the public schools must provide a program of education suited to the needs of *all* mentally retarded children, guaranteeing them due process and periodic evaluation and review. Equal protection for both normal and mentally retarded children was assured.

Rights for All

The essence of this decision was extended further to all exceptional children (mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, learning disabled, and physically handicapped) when another class action suit was brought against the Board of Education of the District of Columbia. The *Mills* case upheld the right of all exceptional children to an appropriate public education and decreed that lack of finances could no longer be used as an excuse for depriving exceptional children of rights other children enjoy. In short, the *Mills* case further established the right to education. By means of these class action suits, more and more parents and educators are finally making relevant changes for handicapped children.

CONSTITUTION

Finally in 1975, The Education for All Handicapped Act (Public 94-142) was passed by the Congress of the United States of America. This law mandated a free and appropriate public education for all handicapped children. According to this law, every child must have an "Individual Educational Program" (IEP) tailored to meet her specific needs.

As your teacher will tell you, this task is "easier said than done." A major purpose of your ASSIST training is to help you help your teacher fulfill the law as best she can. In fact, one of the major provisions of this new law is that instructional associates, like yourself, receive training for that purpose.

In conclusion, our legal rights are drawn from one of two basic sources. Some fundamental rights are held to be basic and "inalienable" and are spelled out in the documents of the United States Constitution or State Constitutions (Constitutional Rights). Other legal rights are the result of specific provisions of statues enacted by the legislatures (Statutory Rights). One should remember that "Constitutional Rights" and "Statutory Rights" are guaranteed for all *citizens*, including all exceptional children of *all* races and creeds.

Mainstreaming

How to Teach?

Due to the legal and social change benefitting the mildly handicapped in the last ten years, there has been a great increase in the sensitivity of educators to many issues affecting the mildly handicapped. The limitations of formal tests, the negative potential of labeling, the relationship of ethnic prejudices to educational practice, and the need to defend the civil rights of all individuals are now familiar issues to most educators. However, awareness of problems and issues does not automatically lead to clear understanding of the best way to teach mildly handicapped children. What are the best curricula for mildly handicapped children? What type of classroom is best for the child's academic growth? What type of classroom supports positive social behavior? What type of classroom enhances the child's self esteem? These are questions that still remain.

Self-Contained Classrooms

Traditionally, it was believed that the best way to educate mildly handicapped children was to place them in classrooms with other children of similar handicaps. This belief led to special classrooms for the educable mentally retarded, the emotionally disturbed, and the learning disabled. These classrooms are self-contained, meaning that the child receives the major part of her instruction in one classroom with one teacher. It was felt that mildly handicapped children would be served best by putting children with similar problems in a special classroom with a specially trained teacher using special curricula for that particular category of exceptional children. In this way, a mildly handicapped child would not be forced to compete with "normal" children and would be protected from any teasing from their "normal" playmates. In many instances, by identifying and then placing a mildly handicapped child in a special class, additional government funds were alloted to the school for the child's education.

Today, the self-contained special classroom is still a major type of classroom placement for mildly handicapped children. You, as an Instructional Associate, may work in such a classroom. Your responsibility is to assist your teacher in providing the most appropriate education possible for the children you serve.

Need For Change

In the last ten years, some educators, however, have questioned whether the self-contained classroom is the best place to teach the mildly handicaped. Research studies were indicating that mildly handicapped children placed in special classes were not achieving as well academically as mildly handicapped children of similar abilities who were not taken out of regular grades. Other studies indicated that the social isolation of the special class was bad for the child's "real world" social adjustment. In essence, the value of normal peer interaction appeared to outweigh potential harmful results. In addition, the similarity of the instructional process between mildly handicapped and normal children did not justify separate services. Other educators argued that this form of segregation in a democratic society is unacceptable and like other forms of segregation is inherently unequal. In fact, in too many cases the special class was situated in an out-of-the-way area and given the outdated books. Based upon these arguments, special educators began to propose ways of placing special children in classrooms with normal peers, yet with supportive services to the children or their teachers. It was hoped that these supportive services would overcome the problems that had initially resulted in the referral of the child for special placement.

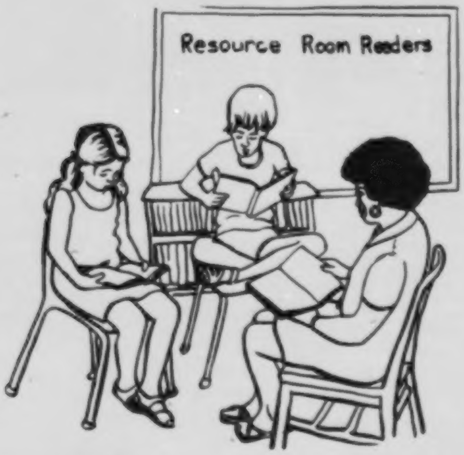
All Children Together

Mainstreaming is the term used to describe these efforts to place special children in educational environments with their "normal" peers. However, there are many different forms of mainstreaming. In some cases, children are placed back in the regular grades but receive assistance from a resource teacher who spends some part of the day helping the child and the teacher in the regular classroom. Sometimes, this teacher is called an itinerant teacher, especially if the teacher is assigned to several schools and must travel. In other cases, the child leaves the regular classroom for a certain part of the day to go to a resource room. Depending on the school system, the child, the teachers, and other factors, the child may stay in the resource room 45 minutes, the mornings, or perhaps several days a week.

Government

Governmental agencies have recently acknowledged the practice of mainstreaming. Some states are now reimbursing or paying back school systems for children labeled mildly handicapped who are not placed in special classrooms but spend all or part of the day in regular classes. In fact, some states have legislated the "least restrictive alternative" policy which means that exceptional children should only be removed from regular classes when absolutely necessary, to the least extent possible, and returned as soon as possible.

In conclusion, there are many different ways children can be mainstreamed. Mainstreaming efforts differ by state, by school systems, by school, and even by child. At this point, no one mainstreaming method has been found to be better than any other for all children. Nor is there conclusive evidence that mainstreaming is better than self-contained classrooms. The attempt to discover what educational environments are most effective for children under different circumstances continues to be a perplexing problem in special education.



If you, as an Instructional Associate, are working in a school that is experimenting with a mainstreaming effort, you should become familiar with the purpose and rationale of the program. You will also have to learn about any problems particular to your school which is making the mainstreaming effort more difficult. Most importantly, you must learn very clearly, your role responsibilities. You may be responsible to more than one teacher. Perhaps you will work at different locations in the school with different responsibilities at each location. Under these conditions, it may be even more difficult to learn the routines, to anticipate the needs of the teacher(s), and to learn your role. The need to share ideas and communicate effectively is very great. You, as an Instructional Associate, will play a very vital part in the functioning of the mainstreaming effort.

Summary

We label objects and people to help us communicate with others. While labels can be helpful they can also be destructive. This has been the case of the labels "mental retardation," "emotional disturbance" and "learning disability".

In the past, we have viewed individuals labeled mildly handicapped in inappropriate ways. We have viewed mental retardation and emotional disturbance as sicknesses that affect the total personality. We have been far too insensitive to culture and class differences among children. We have been too dependent upon standard test scores. Today, we are learning to recognize the beauty and importance of each culture in our society. We celebrate the truth that Constitutional Rights and Statutory Rights pertain to all exceptional children of all races and creeds.

We are in the process of viewing mentally retarded people as human beings who have the potential to change and develop. For change to occur, we must provide education and training which will enable all individuals to become productive adults. We are learning to make the instruction multicultural and more relevant to each individual.

In addition, educators today are searching for ways to determine what types of classrooms are best for particular children under various circumstances. In some cases, mildly handicapped children are placed in self-contained classrooms with one special educator for the whole day with similarly handicapped children. In other cases, mildly handicapped children are mainstreamed into the regular grades and spend part of their day with "normal" peers. Whatever the child's placement, your role as an Instructional Associate is the same—to become a complementary and needed person in the instructional process and to assist mildly handicapped children to achieve their full developmental potential.

You, as a paraprofessional and as a member of the instructional team, play an important role in the education of individuals labeled mildly handicapped. If you view the students in the classroom as developing human beings with the same rights as all other individuals, you are well on your way toward making a real and lasting contribution to their lives.

ASSIST Activity 4: *Labeling*—Chapter 2

Objective: To demonstrate knowledge of labeling in relation to mildly handicapping conditions.

Fill in the blanks with the letter of the most correct entry.

1. ____________ give us mental images of things.
2. ____________ is the process of applying a set of traits to a whole group of people.
3. ____________ are unjustified beliefs in negative stereotypes.
4. ____________ are generally unrecognized in preindustrial societies.
5. ____________ became a major factor in the labeling of many more people as handicapped.
6. ____________ have been denied in the past due to low IQ scores.
7. ____________ labels describing mildly handicapping conditions have not been very beneficial for educational programming.
8. ____________ takes place when people act the way people expect them to act.
9. ____________ that are negative influence the way people treat other people.
10. ____________ children may score low on standardized tests even though they are not handicapped.
11. ____________ takes place when a person's personality is defined on the basis of a specific handicap.
12. ____________ help maximize the opportunities of people whom they are concerned about.

A. Civil rights
B. Expectations
C. Self Fulfilling Prophecy
D. Stereotyping
E. Spread Effect
F. Culturally Different
G. Labels
H. Prejudices
I. Advocates
J. Mild Handicaps
K. Traditional
L. Standardized Test

ASSIST Activity 4:

1. G
2. D
3. H
4. J
5. L
6. A
7. K
8. C
9. B
10. F
11. E
12. I

ASSIST Activity 5: *Legal Rights*—Chapter 2

Objective: To demonstrate knowledge of legal rights for exceptional children

Place a T in the blank if the statement is True; an F if the statement is false.

1. ____________ Handicapped individuals have always enjoyed the same legal rights of other citizens.
2. ____________ Education is only a right for those children who can demonstrate basic self-help skills.
3. ____________ All children have a right to a publicly supported education.
4. ____________ All children have a right to an educational program based upon their individual needs.
5. ____________ The rights of the handicapped are derived from the same Constitutional and Statuatory rights afforded other citizens.
6. ____________ The provision of separate services for various groups is gaining more and more legal acceptance.
7. ____________ Parents and their organizations have been a major force behind the struggle for equal rights for the handicapped.

ASSIST Activity 5:

1. F 2. F 3. T 4. T 5. T 6. F 7. T

ASSIST Activity 6: *Mainstreaming*—Chapter 2

Objective: To demonstrate knowledge of the concept of mainstreaming.

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate words from the list below.

1. Mainstreaming is a term used to describe the effort made to place ____________ into ____________ with their *normal* peers.

2. List several possible administrative arrangements which typify mainstreaming:
   a) ______________________________
   b) ______________________________
   c) ______________________________

3. An ____________ teacher usually ____________ from school to school.

4. The state of Indiana and other states have legislated the ____________ policy which means that exceptional children should only be removed from ____________ only when absolutely ____________, to the least extent possible and ____________ as soon as possible.

a. educational settings
b. itinerant
c. resource room — one hour
d. least restrictive alternative
e. special children
f. special education room — half day
g. regular programs
h. travels
i. necessary
j. returned
k. regular classroom — half day

ASSIST Activity 6:

1. special children; educational settings
2. example: regular room halfday, resource room halfday
3. itinerant; travels
4. least restrictive alternative, regular programs, necessary, returned

NOTES:

Chapter 3

THE SCHOOL

The Educational Team

Everyone Works Together

Whether your school is large or small, it is a complex organization. Utilizing the talents and abilities of so many people, both in the school and in the community, is often a difficult but necessary step to insure a quality education for all students. You, other school personnel, many resource individuals in your community, and parents of your students must work together to form a total educational team.

In the same way that you and your teacher form an instructional team, the total educational team working together should help insure a more complete education for mainstreamed children. Each member of this team, regardless of title or position, assists in and contributes to the full educational goals of the students. As an instructional associate and valuable member of this educational team, you have special professional responsibilities. You also have a special professional relationship to other staff members.

Live the Role

No title has real meaning unless behaviors match the title. Give your title of instructional associate real meaning. Live it. You are expected to relate to your colleagues, students, and persons outside your school in a professional manner. The behaviors and attitudes that you exhibit have an effect upon others. They also reflect upon you as an instructional associate. Your role as a member of the instructional team is a demanding and exciting one. Show it by your actions. When you meet its expectations, it will be rewarding for you.

Confidentiality

Be Cautious

In your job you will probably read and hear information about students that is confidential. It may be the results of tests, financial information, or something another staff member has told you. You must be careful with whom you share what you have learned. There will be times when it is appropriate to share such information and times when it is inappropriate. When is it appropriate? If the information is relevant and important for a student's program and growth, perhaps you should discuss the information with your teacher or other teachers and staff members. When is it inappropriate? If the information is not directly related to the student's program or growth, then you should exercise discretion in discussing it. Never use information about a student as a topic of jest or gossip.

Confidentiality or respect for the rights of others is not limited to your interactions with other staff members. Remember that a total educational team involves you, other school personnel, community resource persons and parents. There will be times when you will meet social workers, nurses, community counselors and others who work directly or indirectly with your students. You will also meet parents of the students in social situations or school settings, such as parent conferences and PTA meetings. Parents or friends of parents of your students may in good faith ask you questions about the progress or problems a student may be experiencing. The teacher is the most appropriate person to discuss the child's progress and problems. You should generally direct any questions about a student which entail sharing of confidential information to the appropriate teacher. However, your teacher may request your input and suggestions for certain parent conferences, case staffings and discussions. Be prepared to share pertinent information at these times.

Ask the Teacher

School Personnel

Although you will have the greatest professional and personal interactions with your teacher and other instructional associates, you should know the names and responsibilities of other staff members.

In general, school personnel can be divided into three areas:

1. Administrative staff
2. Ancillary staff
3. Teaching staff

Naturally, for those of you who have much experience, you are quite aware of the names and responsibilities of these other staff members. You may use this description as a helpful review or as a comparison with your own school. If you are a new instructional associate, this section will be quite important for preparing you for some of the first things you will need to know.

The administrative staff

The administrative staff of a school is generally composed of the principal, vice-principal, counselors, and office personnel. Under the direction of the principal, it is the responsibility of the staff to insure that everything within the school organization is running smoothly. As the leader of the school, the principal is responsible for its total operation. Although she may delegate authority to the vice-principal and others, the ultimate responsibility for the total school operations and programs remains with the principal.

The secretarial and office staff are critical to the operation of your school. They should be treated as valuable members of the educational team. In the course of the day you will often come into contact with the secretarial and office staff, especially when performing your non-instructional duties. You will be ordering classroom supplies, running off dittos, or completing lunch and attendance forms. At times you will need the advice or assistance of the secretarial and office staff. Questions you may have concerning non-instructional duties and school procedures should be referred to them. You will be surprised at the wealth of information they hold.

Be Considerate

Almost every administrative office area in every school is a busy and sometimes confusing place. It may appear so especially just before or after school. If you must be in the office during a busy time, perhaps when signing in or out for the day, it is best not to strike up lengthy conversations. They may be distracting and frustrating to the office staff. There are more appropriate places and times when you can hold your conversations. The lounge area is an appropriate spot for such purposes.

The administrative and office staff are valuable resources to you in your daily school life. You should make every attempt to develop and maintain good relations with these persons.

The ancillary staff

The ancillary staff members serve as instructional resources for the teaching staff. By their role definitions alone they are very important members of the educational team. The ancillary staff may include such persons as the

- school psychologist
- social worker
- physical or occupational therapist
- nurse
- speech and hearing clinician

There may be times when you have questions and concerns that you would like to discuss with members of the ancillary staff. It is best to always direct your questions to your teacher first. If you work through your teacher as the program manager it will better assure professionalism. Your teacher will respect your interest and concern for your students, and she will also respect your own professional behavior. The degree to which you interact with ancillary personnel will depend on your experience, previous training, and your school situation.

The teaching staff

As an instructional associate, you will be working with not only your teacher as the program manager, but also other teachers on the staff. The amount of time you will come into contact with other teachers depends on how your students are mainstreamed into regular education and the amount of time they spend in regular classes. Learn to know all the teachers on the staff, but particularly those teachers who instruct your students. Share ideas with them. Ask questions. Observe their teaching styles. The more you are aware of how different teachers relate with your students, the more your input will be meaningful and complete when helping to plan for and implement an instructional program for the student. There is a great need for more communication between teachers of mainstreamed children. As you gain experience, your teacher may ask you to be a "go between." As a liaison, your participation can help to facilitate a full exchange between these teachers.

During the course of each school day you will interact on a formal or informal basis with many of your colleagues. This contact can be valuable. Use these times to develop knowledge about *their* roles and services which can benefit you and your students. Exchange ideas. Use these persons as resources. They may also call upon you as a resource. They may have books, articles, or ideas that will help you in your work. A conversation at lunch time or an informal discussion in the lounge may provide you with valuable information. It may be information which you can use in your job to more fully enrich your instructional responsibilities. They may provide you with general information on techniques or materials that you can use. Your interest in their role and their ideas will indicate to other school personnel your desire to be a vital and contributing member of the school team. Remember that information about individual students should not be discussed. Exchanging information about a particular student with other staff members is the responsibility of your teacher.

Understand Their Contribution

We have discussed how you are a member of the total educational team of your school. You will interact with many different people. An understanding of their contribution to the process of education, regardless of their duties, is necessary if you are to fulfill your duties and responsibilities as an instructional associate.

School Procedures

Any organization from the largest of corporations to the smallest of family businesses must have procedures and regulations by which to operate efficiently and effectively. This is true also for schools. There must be specified regulations on what to do and procedures on how to do them, especially in schools with large numbers of students and staff. These procedures and regulations are contained in the school handbook which you will most likely receive at the beginning of the school year.

You should familiarize yourself with sections containing information on:

1. Personnel and organization of the school
2. What to do in emergency situations such as fire drills, seizures and sickness
3. Clerical and routine duties such as bus and cafeteria duty and school forms
4. Personnel policies such as sick leave, arrival and departure time, holidays

If your school does not have a handbook, or if it does not contain this information, you should ask your teacher about these things. ASSIST Activity 7 provides a form you may use to record what she has told you about these problems.

PROCEDURES
HANDBOOK

There are other pertinent questions you should ask your teacher such as:

Questions

- **Do I attend professional meetings?**
- **Do I have a probationary period of employment?**
- **What are my rights and responsibilities as a school employee?**
- **What is the policy of giving medication to students?**

You can and probably will think of more questions once you begin working.

Changes

Each school has a daily routine of scheduled activities, but at times a special or unintended event may cause a change in this schedule. Any change in activities or schedules should be written in daily memos to the staff, so you should read this on a daily basis. Check your mailbox before and after school each day, so you will be aware of any schedule or activity changes that may affect your classroom routine.

Be Professional

There are some general school procedures which should be followed, however, no matter in what school you work. Always arrive on time. You will need time to organize and plan your work for the day. If you will be late or absent from school you should inform the main office so that your teacher can plan accordingly. Good attendance is always a plus for you. Your help is needed and counted on by your teacher and students. Many schools have dress codes. Does your school have one? If the school has established a dress code, follow it. If your school does not have an established code, you should dress in a professional manner or according to what is appropriate for activities in which you will be involved. Jeans, for example, may be appropriate if you will be on the floor with the children or out-of-doors. They may not be appropriate to wear if you will be meeting with parents for a conference or presenting a lesson in a formal situation. The point is to use good judgment when following a dress code. How you go about handling these general school procedures will reflect your concern for your responsibilities. If in doubt, your program manager will advise you about appropriate dress.

Accept Your Obligations

This is not to say that there won't be "those" days when something has gone wrong at home before you leave for school. You may not feel well. Sometimes on a cold or rainy morning you may not want to roll out of your bed. Just remember that everyone has "those" days . . . the principal, your teacher, the children. Part of being a paraprofessional is overcoming those feelings.

Your role as an educator and as a person who is responsible for the development of students requires that you maintain and accept your professional obligations. It also demands special responsibilities and attitudes. Demonstrating knowledge of daily school routines, general procedures, and policies that effect you personally is another way of making yourself a valued member of the total school program.

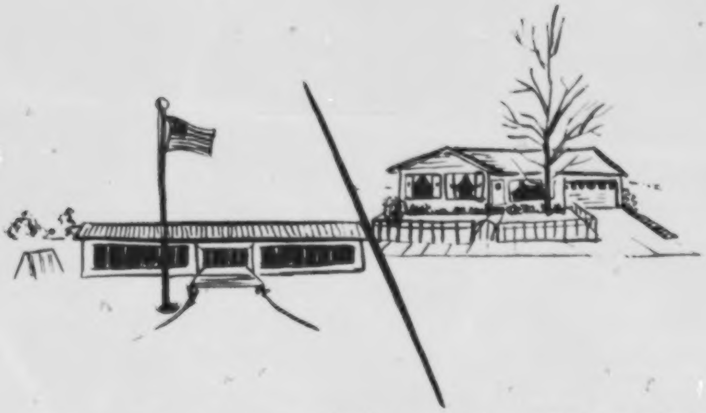
The Public

You Are A Representative

Professional behavior and attitudes do not end with the close of the school day. You are a representative of your school. People in the community will form opinions of your school and its staff based on their perception of you. Whether you are at the library, grocery store, or just talking across the backyard fence with a neighbor, you represent your school. As a public relations person you should be able to tell neighbors, relatives, social acquaintances, and persons in the community the philosophy and programs of your school. Do you know the philosophy? Can you describe certain programs in your school? Be inquisitive. Ask your teacher or other staff members about your school. When you do, you will gradually become aware of both strengths and weaknesses of your school and its programs. You should reflect and emphasize the positive aspects of your students, staff and school.

The Parents

The education of any student is a shared responsibility. Not just one teacher is solely responsible for the education of a child. The responsibility for providing an appropriate education for children, especially for mainstreamed students, is shared by the educational team. Within the educational team, the parents of the children are vital members.



Parents Are Important

The program manager and instructional associate should be keenly aware of how important parents are when planning individualized programs for a child. Learning does not occur only between the walls of a classroom. When parents are actively involved in their child's education and/or understand it, there is likely to be more carry-over of learning outside the classroom. Learning in school is strengthened by an interaction of school, community, and home.

Because your students will be in the mainstream of education for at least part of the day, and because you have received training you may be called upon to interact with parents more than paraprofessionals have in the past. You can be a natural link between the school environment and the home environment. You should be able to present yourself in a warm but professional manner each time you relate to parents or guardians. The teacher, it should be remembered, is the appropriate individual to discuss a student's problem with a parent. However, as an instructional associate, you should be able to discuss a child's educational program with the parents and answer most of their questions. If the parents ask a question that you cannot answer comfortably, honestly tell the parents that you do not know the answer. Explain that you will forward the question to the teacher and provide them the teacher's response as soon as possible. You are not expected to know all the answers, but you are expected to communicate honestly.

Depending on your situation, your teacher may ask you to make frequent contact with students' parents either by phone or home visit, if you desire such responsibility. Make the home contact purposeful, obtaining or sharing only relevant information. Keep a log of home contacts and share this information with your teacher on a regular basis. In addition, almost every school has a Parent-Teacher Association and/or school open house functions during the academic year. The program manager and instructional associate can use these opportunities to relate effectively with parents. Positive sharing must occur between the parents and school personnel. Advice and information obtained from parents or guardians is a valuable contribution to a child's education.

Parents
Really Help

Establishing rapport with parents is also necessary since very often you will want what you have taught the child to be developed and practiced in the home. Parents can complement the school instruction by helping their child develop a skill being taught at school or encouraging their child to practice skills already acquired. Naturally, some parents will be more able and willing to complement the school team's efforts than others. The contributions of all parents, however, should be respected and encouraged.

Parent
Organizations

Not only are parents an important educational resource when planning a child's individualized program and with follow-through activities, but they have historically been responsible for many educational and social changes. Parents, educators, and interested citizens have banned together and formed organizations such as the National Association for Retarded Citizens (NARC) and the Association for Children with Learning Disabilities (ACLD). These organizations and their local affiliates have worked to organize classes for their children when none were previously provided, to ensure appropriate educational programming for their children, and to educate the public to the needs of all exceptional children. They have successfully gained the support of social agencies, state legislatures and local school boards to provide an appropriate education for their children. Mainstreaming children into the regular flow of education is partly the result of parents' struggles to gain for their children the right to an appropriate public education.

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Summary

Since you are a member of the instructional team in the classroom, you have a special relationship to your teacher, students, and colleagues. Your relationship to them is seen not only in the performance of your duties but in the professional behavior and attitudes you bring to these duties. Respect for confidentiality of information, knowledge of school programs, knowledge of staff interactions and adherence to established school procedures are a few indicators of your acceptance of your role in the total educational process of your school.

ASSIST Activity 7: *Policies*—Chapter 3

Objective: To demonstrate knowledge of school personnel, policies, and procedures.

I. School Personnel: Names and position of the administrative and ancillary staff members at your school.

Name

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

Position

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

II. Describe the School Procedures for:

1. Fire drill - ____________________
2. Administration of medicine - ____________________
3. Seizures - ____________________
4. Other school procedures (e.g., are T.B. tests required?) ____________________

   ____

III. Describe Clerical and Routine Duties:

1. Bus duty procedures - ____________________
2. Cafeteria duty procedures - ____________________
3. Procedures for office machines - ____________________
4. Attendance forms - ____________________
5. Lunch forms - ____________________

IV. Describe school personnel policies:

1. Sick and personal leave - ____________________
2. Holidays - ____________________
3. When and where is smoking permitted? - ____________________
4. Attendance at professional meetings, PTA meetings, conventions - ____________________

   ____

5. Dress code - ____________________
6. Working hours - ____________________
7. In-service conference times - ____________________

ASSIST Activity 7:

Answers are specific to your school

ASSIST Activity 8: *Parents*—Chapter 3

Objective: To understand and appreciate the contribution of parents.

List three different ways parents can contribute to the instructional process.

1.

2.

3.

ASSIST Activity 8:

1. By providing information and advise.
2. By helping with the instruction.
3. By taking part in parent organizations.

NOTES:

Chapter 4

THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS

The Process Of Instruction

Goals for Handicapped

The goal of education is to bring about positive and lasting changes in students. Educational personnel have the responsibility to prepare each student as fully as possible to be a total member of society. For a person to be a total member of society means that person is a productive, contributing, and self-sustaining adult with a sense of personal satisfaction and worth. Education, therefore, must provide experiences to students which will help them to achieve these goals in our complex economic and social systems.

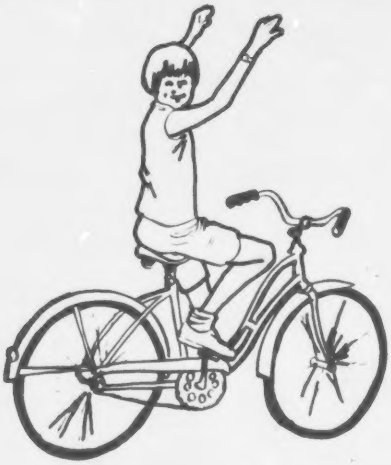
The goal of education for students labeled mildly handicapped is no different than it is for any other student in any other school. Mildly handicapped students must also acquire the knowledge and skills needed to fully participate in the mainstream of society.

It is through the instructional process that we directly help students to reach these goals. However, all too frequently, we think of instruction and learning only in relationship to formal classroom settings and specific subjects such as reading, writing, and arithmetic. While instruction and learning do in fact include these things, they also include much more.

Purpose of Instruction

Whether it occurs with one student or a group of students, or whether it occurs in formal classroom settings, or on the playground, the ultimate purpose of instruction is to change the behavior of the students in a positive and lasting manner. If learning has occurred, then the behavior change will continue long after instruction has stopped.

An example may help clarify what is meant by learning and behavior change. As children, very few of us were able to jump on a bicycle for the first time and ride away. Most likely, a parent or brother or sister showed us how to do it and held the bicycle while we tried to peddle, hold on the the handlebars



and balance, all at the same time. Eventually, after much wobbling, we were able not only to ride, but much to our parents' dismay, to ride without holding on to the handlebars. Even if many years passed before we again rode a bicycle, we would, with a minimum of practice, again put together all the motions of balancing, steering, and peddling. Learning had occurred because the behavior, riding a bicycle, continued long after instruction had stopped. In this process you put together skills you already possessed and learned a new behavior.

Frequency of Behavior

However, learning or behavior change can occur in two other ways. It can occur when we increase the frequency or quality of a behavior which a student already possesses. For example, if a student is able to pay attention for only 30 seconds at a time, and after instruction, he is able to attend for 35 seconds, 40 seconds, 60 seconds, and so on, then learning has occurred. We have increased the frequency of a behavior. Learning also consists of assisting a student in getting rid of or eliminating an inappropriate behavior. Teaching a student to gain self-control rather than displaying severe anger is an example of this type of learning.

Eliminating Inappropriate Behavior

Whether we are developing new behaviors or replacing inappropriate ones, it is important to remember that positive learning occurs when the behavior is changed in an appropriate manner and that change continues after instruction has stopped.

Instruction takes place when you provide appropriate learning experiences for your students. Appropriate learning experiences take place anytime you assist your students in developing skills to facilitate their maximum development.

To do this, as we have previously stated, requires the coordination of the knowledge and skills of both the program manager and the instructional associate. Within the instructional process, your teacher as program manager has four primary responsibilities:

Teacher's Responsibilities

1. Assessing the developmental level of each student
2. Developing instructional objectives and programs for each student
3. Coordinating personnel to assist her in reaching the objectives
4. Evaluating the programs

Within each of the above areas, you will utilize your talents in a manner complementary to those of the teacher. While your teacher has specific skills in assessment, the complementary knowledge of assessment purposes and procedures you will gain during inservice will be of benefit in your instructional activities. If you do not have this knowledge, you will not know how the lesson

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you are teaching fits into the student's instructional program. These instructional experiences which you then implement should also be related to the experiences that other school personnel, under the coordination of your teacher, provide for the students.

Your
Complementary
Skills

The skills you will gain in evaluating what has happened in instruction will give the teacher needed information to plan future programs. She may do this either by modifying an existing program or utilizing the newly acquired abilities of the student to develop a new program. With this overview of your complementary roles in mind, let us examine the instructional process in more detail.

It has been stated several times that your teacher as program planner is responsible for developing instructional objectives and programs for students. However, before a program of relevant learning experiences can be developed, it is necessary to find out what skills the student already possesses as well as how well and in what settings these skills are displayed.

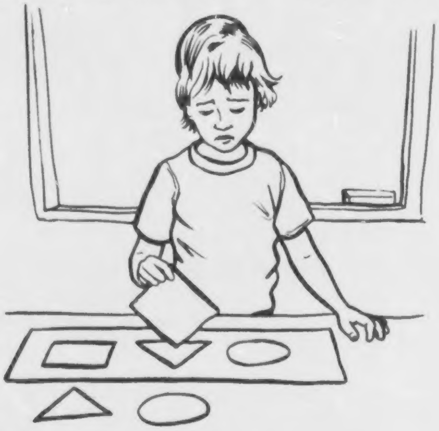
As children grow and change from dependent infants to independent adults, they acquire skills in four major developmental areas. These areas are:

Developmental
Areas

1. motor
2. communication
3. social
4. cognitive

Development proceeds in an orderly fashion, one step at a time. The skills in each of these four areas are developed in a sequential manner, moving from very basic to more complex skills. We know that infants coo and babble before they utter single words. These single words are then gradually put together to form phrases, and finally, sentences.

As the child develops, the skills in each of these areas gradually begin to interact with each other. For example, if you ask a child to place a red peg in the appropriate sized hole, this will involve the coordination of several skill areas.



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The child has to pick up a peg of a color named by the teacher, a language skill. She must grasp the peg between her thumb and forefinger, a fine motor skill. She must place it in the appropriate sized hole, an eye-hand coordination skill. You can see that what may appear to be a simple request in instruction may in fact be a complicated activity. If a child is delayed in any of the skill areas needed for the task, it will be difficult for her to reach the objective.

Not only do skills interact and combine with each other, but as a child moves through the stages of development, they become building blocks for more complicated skills. As a student moves through the primary and intermediate program levels, she is acquiring skills that are needed for activities at advanced program levels. The four major skill areas are extended to include adult living skills such as vocational, recreational, and leisure skills. To teach such complex skills, the integration and sequence of the more general skills is needed.

Assessment of Development

Before instruction can begin, therefore, it is necessary to determine the developmental level of the student and to examine how the four skill areas are related to each other. If this is not done, then you may, in error, attempt to teach a skill which the student already has or attempt to teach a more complex skill which she may not be ready to learn because she has not yet learned the skills leading up to it.

What is Assessment?

Assessment is the process by which your teacher as program manager gathers this developmental information for instructional purposes. It is a systematic method of obtaining as much information as possible to make decisions on the instructional objectives and programs for students. This information can be obtained by several methods employing the talents of many different people. The teacher herself can collect some of the information in the classroom. She can construct and administer tests that answer important questions about what a student can and cannot do in the developmental skill areas. As part of the assessment process, you may be asked to observe a student or group of students in classroom interaction. Since your teacher knows what information is needed to make decisions, she will tell you what to look for and how to record what you see. Observation skills are very valuable to you as an instructional associate because they enable you to provide critical information that your teacher may use in program planning.

Other Resources

Other resources may also be utilized in gathering assessment information. Since students must also function in environments other than the classroom, it is important to assess their skills in these other settings. For example, parents as partners in instruction can provide the teacher with information on skills their child does or does not use in the home. It would be helpful to the teacher to know that the child may have friends at home but not in school. Ancillary or related school personnel should be of great assistance to the teacher in providing information on what the student does in other instructional settings within the school.

Decision Making

All of this information, from as many sources as possible, then forms the basis for the decisions by the program manager as to what instructional objectives and programs are most appropriate for individual students. Although your involvement in assessment may be limited to observation, your knowledge of the purpose and reasons for assessment will assist you in implementing the instructional objectives.

Program Planning

If you plan to take a trip, you usually just don't hop in the car and drive. You spend some time in planning the best way to get to your destination or final goal. This is true also for your teacher when she plans programs based on instructional objectives. She examines assessment information to determine the developmental level of each child in each of the four areas of motor, communication, social, and cognitive skills. Once this has been done, she can develop major goals called Long Range Objectives for each student.

Long Range Objectives

For example, you and your teacher may observe a student who pays attention well and stays on task when instructed directly by an adult, but does not pay attention to the academic task when required to work without supervision. Given this assessment information, the teacher may decide an appropriate Long Range Objective for the student is to be able to do academic work independently.

However, doing academic work independently is a complex activity composed of many skills that must be put together in certain sequence. For that reason, the goal of doing academic work independently must be broken down into small steps for instruction. This process of breaking goals into teachable units is called Task Analysis. From this Task Analysis, the teacher can develop Short Range Objectives on the immediate goals for instruction.

Short Range Objectives

For instance, Short Range Objectives derived from the Long Range Objective of working independently could be remaining in the seat, focusing upon the material, responding to the material, etc. Again, during Inservice training you will receive knowledge and skill concerning the development and implementation of Long Range Objectives, Short Range Objectives and Task Analysis. Your particular role in relation to these activities is a matter for you and your teacher to determine as you complete the relevant Inservice units.

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Once the teacher has decided what to teach, the next step in the process is to plan the sequence of instruction and the materials and activities to be used in the lesson. At the same time, your teacher will determine whether the objectives can be best achieved within a small group setting or on an individual basis with students. Regardless of how the students are grouped, a lesson plan or guide should be developed to describe exactly what will be taught and in what sequence to reach the Short Range Objective. Although your teacher may write all the lesson plans for you, this is a skill which you also should develop. Eventually, when you have gained expertise in instruction, she may provide you with the short range objective and request that you develop the rest of the lesson, with approval. The lesson plan should include the objective, that is, what the student should be able to do at the end of the instructional period. It should also include a statement about the sequence of the lesson, the materials you will use, and how you will evaluate the lesson.

Sequence
of Activities
and Materials

LESSON
PLANS

Lesson Planning

Lesson planning is an instructional responsibility that reflects the complementary role of the instructional team. A free exchange of ideas and suggestions for improved instruction should be reflected in the performance of the students. During such discussions, you will become aware of how much knowledge you have gained through informal observation of your teacher interacting with students, parents, and other school personnel.

Preparing Materials

After the objectives of the lesson have been determined and students grouped, you must then, by yourself or in cooperation with your teacher, plan what materials and activities will best help the student reach the objective. Remember, the same materials do not work with all students. If you are teaching a lesson to stimulate language development, you may have the students cut out pictures from a magazine and mount them on colored paper for discussion. With other students, it may be more appropriate if you cut the pictures and mount them yourself prior to the lesson. The language lesson then centers around these prepared materials. Initially, your teacher will help you in the selection and preparation of materials, making sure that they are appropriate to the task and to the student. Also, as an instructional associate, you will undoubtedly be responsible for preparing instructional materials for your teacher. This may range from preparing and running off ditto masters to creating your own materials for her to use. After the materials and activities have been selected and prepared, you are ready to implement the lesson either on a one-to-one, small group, or large group basis, as determined by your teacher. What you should say and do, and how you should say and do things in a lesson are strategies which take time and practice to develop.

Just as you probably realized that the same materials will not work with all students, the same way of talking and acting will not be effective with all students. For example, with one student you may present the materials and let her examine them for a time. You may then begin to ask questions about the materials and begin the related activities. With another student you may lead into the lesson by asking questions and then provide the opportunity for the student to interact with the materials. Again, watching your teacher's techniques with individual and groups of students, asking questions and thinking about your own experiences in teaching, will help you to develop these skills.

Evaluation

The instructional process does not end when the lesson is over. You must evaluate the success of the lesson by measuring whether or not the objective of the lesson was reached. By measuring how the student performed based on his developmental level, the difficulty of the task, your teaching performance, and the materials and activities used in the lesson, you can determine the success of the instructional experience. If the lesson did not go as planned, it may be that the student needs to develop another skill before this lesson can be effective, or it could mean that the objective was appropriate but the materials were not. If the objective was reached, then your teacher can use this information as a basis for determining another instructional objective. In this way, the instructional process becomes part of the daily classroom cycle. The more evaluation skills you gain the more important you are to the success of this cycle.

Although we have consistently used the word 'lesson' in describing the instructional process, this does not imply that learning or behavior change takes place only during periods of formal instruction. Learning can occur every minute of every school day in every place in the school. It could occur during lunch time, walking down the hall or in the bathroom. In fact, much learning takes place at informal times because what is happening is important to the student. It is up to you to observe and be ready to use these opportunities.

Summary

If the instructional process from assessment to evaluation is to be effective, it requires the involvement and cooperative effort of you and your teacher. As program manager, your teacher has major responsibilities for the development and evaluation of the instructional program of the students. However, she certainly cannot do it alone or in isolation from other school and community resources. As an instructional associate, you are a major resource to her. Your knowledge of assessment procedures, instructional objectives and program planning, and your skills in observation, planning and evaluation, certainly make you a valued and needed person in the classroom.

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ASSIST Activity 9: *Instructional Process*—Chapter 4

Objective: To demonstrate knowledge of the instructional process and your role in it.

1. List the major steps in the instructional process:
   a)
   b)
   c)
   d)
   e)

2. Place in correct order, from the first step to the last, the roles of the program manager:
   a) Coordination ____________________
   b) Program planning ____________________
   c) Assessment ____________________
   d) Evaluation ____________________

ASSIST Activity 9:

1. a) Assessment
   b) Program Planning
   c) Planning of Lesson
   d) Implementation of Lesson
   e) Evaluation of Lesson
2. 1. Assessment
   2. Program Planning
   3. Coordination
   4. Evaluation

ASSIST Activity 10: *Instructional Roles*—Chapter 4

Objective: To clarify role responsibilities at each step of the instructional process.

Now that you have had the opportunity to read about the component parts of the instructional process and the role each of you have in the process, you should take time to discuss this with your teacher. Each program manager has an individual and personalized approach to instruction. This means that you may be utilized somewhat differently than instructional associates in other classrooms. To begin to have an understanding of these roles, use the grid on the next page as a basis for discussing these differences. It would be a good idea to include an example of one major function that you or your teacher perform at each step. This will clarify exactly what your involvement at each step of the process is. Naturally, you both will be able to be much more specific as you proceed with the inservice training.

INSTRUCTIONAL ROLE GRID

	Instructional Associate	Teacher
Assessment		
Developing Long-Range Objectives		
Lesson Planning		
Preparing Instructional Materials to Reach Objectives		
Determining Instructional Strategies		
Implementing Lesson		
Evaluating Lesson		

ASSIST Activity 10:

Answers specific to your team's decisions

PART 2

INSERVICE TRAINING

OVERVIEW TO INSERVICE: TRAINER DIRECTIONS

Inservice training has been divided into six units, which correspond to the major decision or activity points within the instructional process. As the units are sequentially ordered, with each unit building upon the previous one, it is recommended that you follow this sequential pattern of training. However, given your individual classroom needs and style of classroom management, you may wish to spend more time on some units, or portions of units than others. Additionally, you may wish to add activities for those sections that are most important to your classroom operation. During this training sequence, it is important to stress the ways in which the complementary roles of program manager and instructional associate are operationalized in instruction.

Before beginning the inservice training sequence, you should familiarize yourself with the *Sourcebook* content and *Sourcebook* activities of each of the six units. Not only will this maximize the effectiveness of the training, but it will give you a basis for scheduling how and when training will take place.

As the primary trainer, you should develop a schedule that allows time each week for the instructional associate to read and discuss the materials with you. As some activities are longer and more complex than others, you will also have to arrange a separate period of time to go through these activities together. It would probably be more effective in terms of classroom routine, to set aside the same time or times each week for training, if possible. Again, you may not be able to afford this much time for discussion in your situation. Simply communicate with your instructional associate about the ASSIST training as often as you possibly can.

If there are several instructional associates and teachers in your school involved in this training, there may be points at which group discussions and activities can be arranged. However, keep in mind that you may wish to spend more time on a specific unit than other teachers, and so group training may not always be appropriate.

The classroom is, in reality, the laboratory for learning and teaching during this portion of training. Your discussions and activities should continually be directed toward the classroom, and the instructional associate should be given the opportunity to utilize her knowledge and skills in the classroom, under your direction. In this way, you have the opportunity to adapt and expand the materials to meet your specific needs.

SUGGESTIONS FOR BEGINNING INSTRUCTIONAL ASSOCIATES

The first two or three weeks of school are confusing and busy for everyone. It is important to both of you that your instructional associate begin to feel at ease and understand your classroom routine during this initial period. One aspect of the training during this period could be a focus on general aspects of the classroom and school operation. Perhaps during the first two or three weeks (possibly as a group) the instructional associates could learn school policies, procedures, and personnel. For example, the nurse, librarian, or speech and hearing therapist could talk to them about their roles in the educational program of the students. This will not only help the instructional associates during inservice training, but give them the feeling of truly belonging to the school team.

Another aspect of the orientation could be an emphasis on tutoring individual children. In this way, the instructional associate will get to know the children, adjust to working with children, and perhaps provide some assessment information for you. You will also begin to learn the instructional associates strengths and weaknesses this way. Supervising the children who are attempting to complete learning activities independently (seat work) while you are conducting small group instruction is another task beginning instructional associates could do. Since many exceptional children have difficulty with independent learning activities, especially at the start of the year, the supervision the instructional associate can provide at these times could help you and the children immensely.

Generally, in the beginning, you will need to write your lesson plans in such a way that the instructional associate has very specific understandable duties to perform throughout the day. Once the instructional associate learns the routine, knows the children, completes the ASSIST training, and can anticipate your needs, such effort on your part will no longer be necessary. More responsibility can be given to her as she gains experience and knowledge.

Another suggestion for beginning instructional associates is to ask them to complete the inventory of classroom materials generally requested by many school systems at the start of the year. By having your instructional associate undertake this responsibility, she will learn what meterials are available and where they are located.

Since every situation is different, we believe that this form of inservice training with you as the primary trainer is the most beneficial to both you and your instructional associate. Additionally, the format is flexible enough to be adapted to your individual classroom routine and style quite easily. It will take some time and preparation, but the end results should be well worth the effort.

OVERVIEW TO INSERVICE

Introduction

During preservice, you learned in a general way how you as an instructional associate have a complementary role to your teacher. You have responsibilities for instructional, instructionally related and non-instructional tasks. However, the focus of the inservice portion of your training program is designed to help you gain the specific knowledge and skills you will need to effectively fulfill your role in both the instructional and instructionally related areas.

Your teacher is your trainer during inservice. Together, you will work through the ASSIST materials at a rate that you both determine. You may decide to spend more time on some of the inservice instructional units than on others. Depending on your particular needs, you may even wish to review certain preservice portions and/or activities before moving on through the inservice portion of the ASSIST materials. Remember that each unit and its related activities focus on what you will be doing to assist your teacher in the instructional process. Even though most of the reading will be done on your own, it is important to work through the activities as closely with your teacher as possible in your situation since you will be an important extension of the teacher in the classroom.

There are certain skills and knowledge which are important for you to know in order to be effective in the classroom. It is equally important for you to feel confident in your knowledge and skills. As in preservice, for each instructional unit, there are activities in your *Sourcebook* to complete. Again, these activities are provided to give you some assurance that you have mastered the knowledge in the *Sourcebook*.

During preservice, you learned that one of the important aspects of the instructional process is the development of instructional or behavioral objectives. You will recall that an instructional objective is a statement about what the student will be able to do after your instruction has ended. In order to clarify exactly what you will know and/or be able to do at the end of a unit, an objective will be stated at the beginning of each unit. These objectives serve as your guide while moving through the program.

Although the ASSIST materials are quite comprehensive in nature, your teacher as your trainer may provide you with additional knowledge and skills. It will be necessary for you to integrate the information gained from the ASSIST materials and from your teacher so you will become more effective in the classroom. Remember that your major role is to use your complementary knowledge and skills to assist your teacher in reaching these objectives.

Review of Preservice

This unit is a reorientation to ASSIST and an overview to the instructional units of inservice. Before proceeding further, please re-read the section of preservice entitled "The Instructional Process." This is a prerequisite activity. It must be done before continuing.

Behavioral Objective:

At the end of this overview you will be able to identify the five major steps in the instructional process. You will also be able to begin to identify the role of the instructional associate and the program manager at each step.

Roles in the Instructional Process

During preservice you learned that your teacher as the program manager had four major responsibilities. You will recall that these responsibilities were:

1. Assessing the developmental level of each student.
2. Developing instructional objectives for each student.
3. Coordinating personnel to assist in reaching these objectives.
4. Evaluating the programs.

You also learned in the preservice portion that your role as an instructional associate was to assist your teacher in this process by assisting in the:

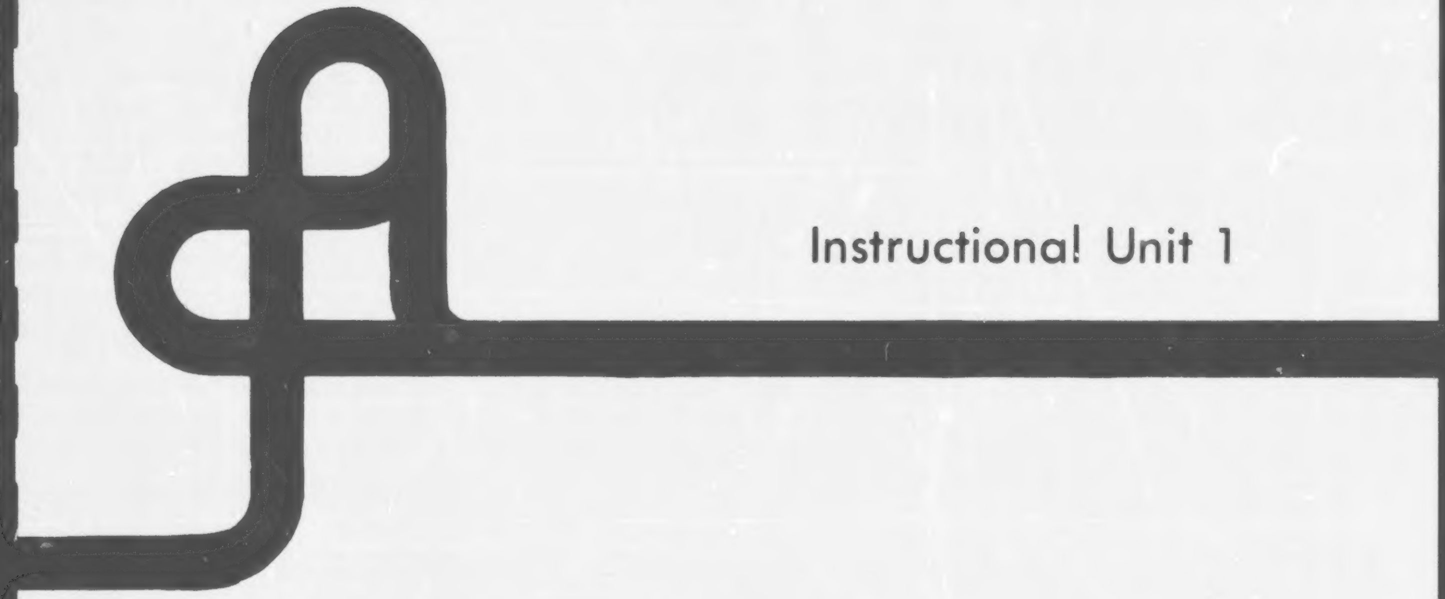
1. **Assessment of student skills.**
2. **Implementation of instructional objectives.**
3. **Implementation of instructional activities.**
4. **Evaluation of instructional activities.**

If it is to be effective, the instructional process requires both you and your teacher working together in a partnership. You have individual responsibilities as the instructional associate just as your teacher as the program manager has different responsibilities. It should be remembered, however, that together you form a powerful team. To function well as an effective team you both must work toward a common objective. That objective is to provide appropriate learning experiences for your students. In order to reach your common objective, you must mutually communicate with one another. It also means that you both must discuss the specific roles which each of you hold in the classroom. Open, honest communication and mutual sharing of ideas will help your partnership grow. Your personal and professional relationship is important to consider. If your partnership is a good one, you will be more likely to maximize the effects of instruction for your students.

On the following pages there is a diagram of the ASSIST orientation to the instructional process. It identifies the five major steps in the instructional process and the component parts of each of the steps. It also specifies the individual functions of the teacher as program manager at each step. Your individual functions will depend upon the decisions made by you and the teacher as you progress through the Inservice units. Those decisions will be influenced by your experience, previous training, and particular circumstances of your school.

Study this diagram carefully. Refer to it often as you proceed through the remainder of the instructional units. By the end of your training, you should know what role you play in each step.

Role of Program Manager	*Instructional Process*
1. Assessment of developmental level of each student.	Assessment skill 1.1 Formal Assessment skill 1.2 Informal Assessment skill 1.21 Teacher Assessment of Developmental level skill 1.22 Parent Information skill 1.23 Direct Observation
2. Development of instructional objectives & programs	Program Planning skill 2.1 Development of Long-Range Objectives skill 2.2 Development of Short-Range Objectives skill 2.3 Task Analysis
3. Coordination & planning with personnel to reach above objectives	Planning of Lessons skill 3.1 Grouping of Students skill 3.2 Writing Lesson Plans skill 3.3 Selection of Instructional skill 3.4 Preparation of Instructional Materisla Implementation of Lesson skill 4.1 Behavior Strategies skill 4.2 Instructional Strategies Evaluation of Lessons skill 5.1 Self as Instructor skill 5.2 Instructional Materials skill 5.3 Strategies skill 5.4 Student's Response
4. Evalustion of instructional objectives & programs	



Instructional Unit 1

ASSESSMENT

INTRODUCTION

Assessment is something that we do in our everyday life. For example, when we are deciding whether to buy land or a house we have its value assessed. Before we buy a new car, we determine its costs, its appeal to us, and the amount of the trade-in we will get for our old car. Both these examples have two things in common. First, there is a purpose or goal, to buy or not to buy. Second, there is the need to gather the necessary information to use in decision-making.

Assessment procedures used in education have the same components. The purpose or goal of educational assessment is to collect information on the present functioning level of each individual student in relationship to the long range objectives of an educational program.

Behavioral Objective: At the end of this Unit, you will be able to identify the differences between formal and informal assessment, and the type of information obtained from each. You will also demonstrate skills in observing and recording student behavior.

ASSESSMENT

Assessment is a very critical step in the instructional process. Without it, teachers would not have information or data to use in planning programs for the student's development. Without planned programs and objectives, instruction has no goal or purpose. You may teach, but the student may not learn. This happens when you attempt to teach something the student already knows or can do. It may also happen when you teach a skill that the student is not ready to learn, because she hasn't learned what goes before it.

The purpose of assessment, therefore, is to provide information to the program manager, so that appropriate instructional programs can be developed. This assessment data should indicate what skills a student has, at what level, and in what environmental settings they are used. Once the student's strengths and weaknesses are determined, the teacher can then develop programs for the student to strengthen the skill she already has and to develop needed skills.

A short summary statement regarding each of the skill areas will assist you as you proceed through this and subsequent units.

Motor:	Motor development proceeds from gross movements of large muscles, such as running and throwing a ball to the fine motor movements such as writing, putting puzzles together, and manipulating small objects.
Communication:	Communication skills involve not only the ability to verbally express oneself, but to understand what is being said as well. Language may be defined as what the child has to say, and speech may be considered to be how it is said. This includes such things as sentence length, structure, and inflection.
Social:	Social skills are interpersonal skills — how a child deals with other persons in her environment. Children initially interact with their family, and as they grow older they move into interaction with other persons.
Cognitive:	Cognitive skills are those associated with learning, problem solving, and adaptive behavior. Skills such as discrimination and sequencing are examples of cognitive skills.
Personal Autonomy:	Personal autonomy skills involve the integration of the other four skills. For example, using money in public is a skill that requires certain cognitive, social, and communication skills. Independent adult behavior is based upon the successful integration of the above skills.

Although the tests and ways of finding out information about the child's knowledge and skills may vary with individual program managers, the most commonly used assessment techniques are:

1. **formal testing**
2. **informal testing**
3. **direct observations**
4. **information from other school personnel**
5. **parent information**

Formal Assessment

Formal testing provides general information about a student. "Norm-referenced tests" are one kind of formal test. These tests compare a student's performance on certain tasks against a standard, usually other students. The most commonly used formal tests are tests of intelligence, or IQ tests, such as the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS), and the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale. These and other tests like them are believed to measure intelligence because they sample or test a wide range of knowledge and skills. These tests are composed of subtests which measure a student's performance on such things as general information (Where is Chile?), comprehension (What would you do if you found a purse in the street?), arithmetic, vocabulary, and picture arrangement. A student's performance on these tests is then measured against how well other students her age performed on the same tasks. From this an IQ score is derived.

According to these tests, average or normal intelligence is equal to an IQ of 100. Any score below a score of 80 or 70, depending upon the state law, is within the range of retardation. In Indiana, for example, to be labeled mildly handicapped, a student must score between 60-75. The moderately handicapped range is 35-60 and the severely handicapped usually score somewhere around 35 and below. It is important to note that these tests are usually administered by a psychologist, or other licensed tester. They follow very specific directions and at times have time limits. Additionally, although they are intended to indicate how well a student is performing in the classroom, standard tests are administered in a formal testing area away from the familiar classroom environment.

The total score from a standardized test, such as an IQ test score, does provide a comparison between a child and similar children of that age group at the time of the test. Its important value is that it provides formal evidence that a possible handicap may exist rather than relying on the mere personal opinion of the teacher, school psychologist, etc. On the other hand, there are great dangers involved when information from norm-referenced formal tests is misused. First, telling a teacher that a child has an IQ of 73 may give her a label that is not educationally beneficial. If a disability label accompanies the score, some educators claim that both the teacher and the

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student may feel a sense of defeat which prevents the child from reaching maximum potential.

Second, some norm-referenced formal tests are inappropriate for children of minority or low economic status. These tests assume that the child tested is similar to the standard group of children for whom the test was meant. A low score in this case may be incorrectly interpreted as evidence of a possible handicap when, in fact, the child is culturally different. For example, if a child from a Spanish-speaking home, scores a 74 on an IQ test which stresses verbal ability, the low score may be due to the child's language difference rather than low intelligence.

Third, standard scores do not give programming information for educators. A teacher does not know from an IQ score whether a child can read, multiply, or make change. Much more information specific to the individual is needed before appropriate goals and objectives can be devised. These problems exist for norm-referenced formal tests which attempt to measure any of the major skill areas. There is danger that the tests are inappropriate for certain children, that the information can be misleading, and that the total score will yield labels that are not educationally beneficial.

Due to these potential problems, it is now recognized that formal testing must take into account the legal rights of children and parents. Many states are implementing committees which devise procedures to protect a child's legal rights when formal assessment is requested. In most cases, formal tests cannot be given without parental consent. A sincere attempt must be made by professionals to give the child's parents an understanding of what the test is all about and why the test might be beneficial. In this way, the child is protected from unnecessary or inappropriate formal test situations.

If a parent disagrees or feels uncomfortable with the explanation of the test, there are "due process" procedures available, where the parents with help from their advocates (lawyers, for example) can resist or appeal administration of a formal test. On the other hand, a parent may desire to have formal test information if they feel their child's placement or that the school's assessment of their child's behavior is incorrect. For most teachers and other educators concerned about mildly handicapped children, these changes are welcome. As educators, we must support changes which help us clarify what we do and why we do it. Now, before formal tests can be administered educators must have a definite purpose for giving the test and they must verify the appropriateness of a test for any individual child.

Although they still do not provide information specific enough to plan, some formal tests do help educators ask better questions about a child's developmental level within a skill area. For instance, results from a general school achievement test, such as the Metropolitan Achievement Test or Iowa Test of Basic Skills, may indicate not only that a child is below normal for that peer group but that the major area of difficulty is reading. Formal tests which provide information about a child in relation to a skill or knowledge area are often termed "criterion-referenced" formal tests. This information is somewhat more specific and helpful but the question remains, "Why is the child experiencing reading difficulty?" To answer that question, a formal test specifically related to reading may be useful. Results from the Gray Oral Reading Test, for example, may indicate difficulties in general word attack skills. However, these results still do not tell you the particular difficulties that individual child is experiencing. Is there difficulty with final consonants? Which particular consonants? After which vowels? In what words? All these questions need answering to adequately set up a child's program. More specific information is needed before devising objectives and lessons for that individual child.

You as an I.A. will not usually be very involved in the formal testing aspect of assessment. In many cases, even the teacher, the program manager, will not be involved in the actual administration of some formal tests. As stated before, in most school systems a licensed tester must now administer formal tests. The information derived from the tests, however, will be available to the teacher and yourself. This discussion of formal assessment has been provided so that you will have an understanding of the general issues regarding formal testing, the limitations of formal testing for educational programming, and the need to use the information appropriately.

Informal Assessment

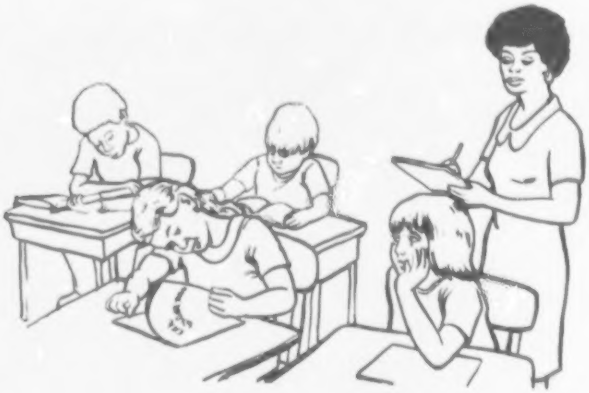
Informal assessment is an excellent source of information for program planning. Unlike the rigid directions and structure of formal assessment, informal assessment is very flexible and can be done in a number of settings. For example, it is appropriate to go outside of the school building to check on a student's social ability on the playground.

The teacher may design a short "test" or task for individual students or groups of students to find out very specific information. She can assess the level of skill functioning in each of the four areas (motor, social, communication, and cognitive) in the different environments in which a student uses or should use the skills. Through informal testing, the program manager can also measure the developmental level of skills related to the specific skill she is assessing. For example, remember the many questions that remained to be answered for the child whose formal testing indicated word attack difficulties in reading. Was the difficulty due to initial consonants, final consonants, long vowels, or short vowels? Informal testing can help answer these questions.

At this point in the assessment process, specific information that can be used for an individual's educational program finally becomes available. There are many ways the teacher could obtain information concerning the child's particular word attack problems. A child's responses to a set of reading "flash" words or reading a story aloud may provide clues to the child's problems. The teacher may want a child's written response to commercial or teacher-made dittos to see if reading problems are overcome, worsened, or not affected by silent reading. Informal assessment of this type is an on-going classroom activity which will demand much of the teacher's time and your time.

Observation

A major activity of informal assessment is observation of students. In order to gain even more data, your teacher may ask you to observe a student and record what you have seen. Direct observations of students are especially important in situations where special children are mainstreamed. The resource teacher may ask you to observe certain children when they are at recess, at lunch, or even walking in the hallway. The regular teacher and resource teacher may ask you to observe a child in the regular classroom and resource classroom so that they can compare the child's behavior in the different settings. If you gain skills in direct observations of students, you can be of great value as the "eyes" of the educational team.



There are many reasons why the program manager may request observations. She may ask you to observe for a period of time to see if a student does or does not engage in certain behaviors. For example, you may be asked to observe if a student is eating well at lunch time.

The number of times a certain behavior occurs may also be of importance. How often Sandra has a temper tantrum could be significant, especially if you record what happened just before her out-of-control behavior occurred. How long a behavior lasts could also be critical. However, before you can effectively observe behavior, you must know what it is and is not. Behavior is everything we do that can be seen by other people. Blinking your eyes and laughing are behaviors. Behaviors are:

1. Observable
2. Measurable

Observable means that someone can see the behavior and identify it. For example, whether you are happy, sad, or tired is difficult to determine only by observing your facial expressions. Facial expressions can mean many different things. If you were crying or laughing, however, that would be a behavior, because it can be identified as laughing or crying.

Besides being observable, for something to be classified as a behavior, it must be measurable. This means there must be a way to record what has happened or what is happening. This may be as simple as putting down check marks every time the behavior you are observing, called the target behavior, occurs. For example, let's say your teacher has selected as a target behavior the number of times Mary leaves the group during a lesson. You watch Mary in the group, and after three minutes she gets up and wanders off from the group. You then check or tally this on your recording form. After that, she may return to the group, but you do not record this. You record only the number of times she walks away from the group. Anything else she may do is not recorded — only the target behavior of walking away. Further, if two persons were observing Mary, they should both agree on what the target behavior was and when it occurred.

Your tally of Mary's behavior may look something like the example below:

Name: Mary Date: 10-4
Time Observed: 10:00-10:15 a.m.
Definition of Behavior: Mary walks away from group activity
Tally: / /
Total: 2
Observer's Name:

Let us look at another example. Can you measure the number of times John daydreams in an hour? No, because first, we don't know what daydreaming looks like. Many people seem very intent on what they are doing, but their thinking is miles away. Probably then, two people could not agree on when daydreaming occurred during that hour period. What needs to be done is to define what John's "daydreaming" is — what specific behaviors does he exhibit? Once that is done, then John's behavior can be observed. For example, instead of saying that he daydreams, we could possibly define that daydreaming behavior as:

1. The number of times John looks away from his book.
2. The number of times John puts his head on the table.
3. The number of times John does not respond to his name being said.

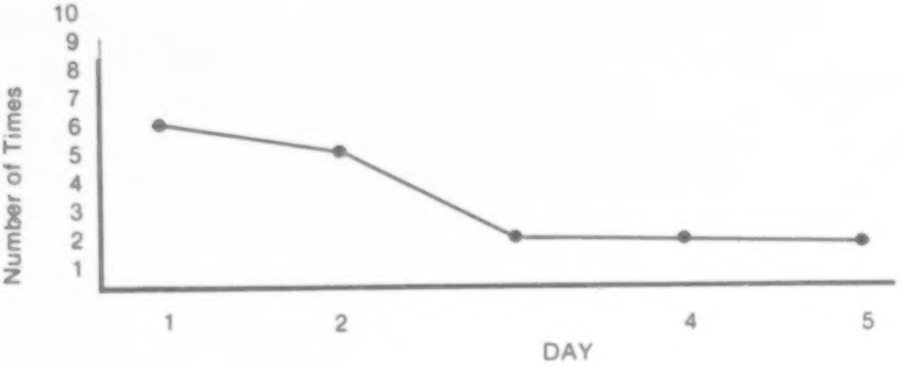
In classroom observation, especially when you first begin, it is easy to become distracted and watch other students or other behaviors of the student you are observing. It is important to look for and record only the target behavior. Otherwise, you may provide your teacher with misleading information.

Eventually when you become skilled in observation, your teacher may give you more complicated observational responsibilities. She may ask you to observe two students interacting and record what happens. Possibly she may ask you to observe a student during a 15-minute instructional lesson and every 30 seconds you record what she is doing right at that second. Over a 15-minute period, you will record 60 behaviors. All, some, or none of these behaviors may be the same — but it does give the teacher a pattern of behavior for that student, and it should be of value in program planning. At the end of a week of observation, you may transfer all the daily observations to a weekly chart.

Name: Mary Lynch

Week of: June 23-27, 1975

Behavior Observed: Walking away from group activity.



The chart on the previous page was a weekly tally of Mary's behavior. From this chart the teacher can tell that over the week, Mary's walking-away-from-the-group-behavior went from six times to two times. If the teacher had changed something in her instructional lesson, then this information would tell her that the change was having a positive effect on Mary's behavior because she was spending more time in the group. These changes that can occur in instruction will be discussed in another Unit, but this example gives some idea of the importance of observation and recording.

When you record your direct observations in this type of way, the better you and your teacher will be able to show that positive change has occurred. However, in your school situation, you may have so many duties in other areas, such as lesson implementation, that you just cannot keep records as detailed as these very often.

Another alternative is to jot down what are called anecdotal records. An anecdotal record is simply a few sentences describing a student's behavior. For example, after delivering a lesson on cursive writing skills, you may have noticed that Janet was experiencing difficulty and made the following report.

Anecdotal Record

Name: Janet

Janet frowned and scowled throughout the lesson. She had most difficulty with the letters *k* and *q*.

Again, while you may decide to record impossions, try to record behaviors also.

In some situations, where you must leave the classroom or do another activity immediately, even this amount of record keeping is difficult. You may be able to simply relate your observation results to the teacher verbally at a convenient time. In general, though, the more organized your assessment procedures are, the more organized the instructional process will be.

At times your teacher may ask you to observe her behavior in instruction. The information you record is a guide that she can use in changing or modifying what she does or does not do when teaching. It is always difficult to make judgment about what we do or don't do in instruction, so observation is a good method of evaluating oneself for improvement. As you will be involved in instruction, you may request that your teacher observe your behavior. In this way, you can make needed changes to become a more effective instructional associate.

Other Informal Methods of Assessment

Another informal method of assessment that your teacher can use is a checklist. This list could include only skills in one area, for example language skills, or it could include skills from other areas. The teacher either observes a student to see which of the tasks she can perform, or designs a specific task to measure the skill. When a student performs one of the skills on the list, it is marked off. In mathematics for example, the teacher may wish to assess counting skills. Can Sharon count by ones, twos, threes, fives, tens, hundreds? A simple checklist for these skills may look something like this:

Skill: Counting
Name: Sharon

	Can do without error	Can do with mistakes	Can not do at all
By 1 to 20	x		
By 2 to 20	x		
By 3 to 18		x	
By 5 to 30			x
By 10 to 100			x
By 100 to 500			x

In this way, the teacher has another source of data regarding a student's strengths and weakness in one area or in several areas. This may take time to do, but it does give some additional information upon which to make program decisions. Since these checklists are available for every member of the educational team to inspect, they help each member know what information the other members have collected. Again, in your school situation the number of checklists per child that your teacher can keep may be more limited. Hopefully, as you gain assessment skills, your teacher will be able to use these kinds of informal assessments to a greater degree.

Other school personnel can also serve as resources in informal testing. For instance, the speech therapist may inform the teacher that certain reading difficulties are truly speech problems or language differences. A child may not be able to hear the final consonants in certain words because she does not speak those final consonants in those words. For instance, most Black children and southern-born children speak words like car, tool, past, and hold without emphasizing the final consonant. The child, in this case, does not have a reading, hearing, or speaking problem at all; it is a dialectical difference. On the other hand, you may bring information from the teacher to the speech teacher to assist her in assessing the student. The teacher may even want you to observe the child with the speech teacher, in the resource room with the resource teacher, or with other helping personnel to see how the child responds in a different environment. As an instructional associate, you may be a very important "go-between" for the educational team.

Parents are another very important source of information. They can be interviewed or asked to observe their child performing certain tasks. Teachers appreciate knowing about a child's interests, hobbies, favorite books, etc. Parents can tell the teacher about circumstances at home which might be affecting their child's performance at school. For example, one High School English teacher whom ASSIST talked to described how hard it was to motivate a student of his until the student's parents told the teacher that their child loved to tinker with old car engines. By centering some lessons in reading, creative writing, and creative storytelling etc, around cars, the student's overall attitude and effort was improved. Whatever the extent of the information gained, it should help the teacher in making program decisions. Parents can offer the program manager much information if she is willing to listen to and be supportive of them.

Informal assessment often is the foundation for important insights into children. For instance, children have different learning styles. Some children learn better by hearing, others by seeing. Some children respond best to verbal praise; others respond better to gaining privileges. Some children learn best from other children; others need adult supervision.

Children also respond differently in different social situations. A child may behave well in one-to-one relationships, but tend to misbehave in small groups. For instance, George's need for attention is satisfied when the teacher is instructing him individually in arithmetic, and therefore he behaves quite well. However, when the teacher is presenting a new math concept in a small group, George often talks to other students or squirms in his seat in an inappropriate attempt to gain the teacher's attention. Some children enjoy art activities; others prefer music. When the teacher has this kind of individual assessment, she can plan objectives, instructional activities, and lessons which will have a greater chance of success.

Summary

Assessment is the first step in the instructional process. Without adequate assessment information, the program manager would not have a guide to developing instructional objectives and programs. Although formal assessment procedures, such as IQ tests are used, the most relevant information comes from informal assessment, parent interviews and direct observations of students. An informal assessment is an on-going process in the classroom which the program manager can continually evaluate, and if necessary, modify the objectives and program for students.

Performing assessment activities will probably be a major part of your instructional responsibilities. Your assistance may enable the teacher to assess each individual child with greater precision. However, it will take time for you to master these assessment skills. Nobody gains these skills overnight or by just reading this instructional unit. With this instructional unit as a beginning, with the continued help of your teacher, and with continued practice, you will learn what kinds of assessment information are most important and how to obtain that information. Refining assessment skills and assessment activities are ongoing tasks for all members of the educational team.

Remember that the assessment process sets the stage for the rest of the instruction. If the child becomes bored or frustrated during the assessment portion of the instructional process, the following lessons may be less effective. And finally, the more the program manager knows about a child's learning style, social behavior, and interests, the better she can plan individualized plans and instructional strategies.

COMPARISON OF FORMAL AND INFORMAL ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES

	Formal Assessment	*Informal Assment*
Who does it?	Psychologist, psychometrist	Teacher, parent, school personnel
How is it done?	Rigid rules, same administration to every student	Flexible, individual students can be assessed differently
Where is it done?	Formal testing room, or away from classroom	In classroom or in whatever setting information is needed (home)
What does it provide the teacher?	General information	Specific skill information
Results?	IQ, MA, Adjustment score Achievement Test Scores	Developmental level in skill area
Is it useful in developing instructional objectives?	Usually for setting priorities	Yes, definitely
How often is it done?	**Once a year/Semester**	Continually

ASSIST Activity 11: *Assessment*—Unit 1

Objective: To demonstrate knowledge of the types of assessment procedures.

Fill in the blank with the letter of the most correct entry.

1. ____________ give information about a child's ability in a general skill area
2. ____________ give information about a child's performance relative to similar children of the same age
3. ____________ can be obtained from parents
4. ____________ can be used to record a child's specific behavior per unit of time.
5. ____________ indicate a child's performance on very specific skills

A. Norm-referenced tests
B. Informal Assessment
C. Checklists
D. Criterion-referenced tests.
E. Observation forms

ASSIST Activity 11:

1. D 2. A 3. B 4. E 5. C

ASSIST Activity 12: *Assessment*—Unit 1

Objective: To define observable behaviors.

1. Example: Check those statements that are behaviors.

__________ Chewing gum
__________ Thinking about taking a nap

Chewing gum is a behavior because it can be observed. Thinking is not observable. Can you tell what thinking looks like?

Check the statements that are behaviors or statements about someone else's behavior.

a) __________ Reading this sentence
b) __________ Walking out of a room
c) __________ "My! Mary is grumpy today."
d) __________ "John, you certainly are daydreaming a lot today."
e) __________ "Kathy, you are doing a good job putting that puzzle together."

2. Give two possible definitions of behavior for this statement:

Kevin isn't nice to the other students.
a)
b)

ASSIST Activity 12:

1. b, e
2. a) Kevin hits other students
b) Kevin yells at other students

ASSIST Activity 13: *Assessment*—Unit 1

Objective: To be able to record informal anecdotal observations.

Record, as best you can, a 4-5 sentence anecdotal record of a child you worked with today. Try to be thorough, specific, and behavioral.

ASSIST Activity 13:

Answers specific to your situation

ASSIST Activity 14: *Assessment*—Unit 1

Objective: To be able to differientate formal from informal information.

A child's personal academic folder contains the following information.

1. WISC score
2. Wide Range Achievement Test Score.
3. Several completed pages from the student's reading workbook.
4. An essay the child tried to complete.
5. Parent Conference report.
6. Scores from the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities.

Which information is formal assessment information? Which information is informal assessment information?

Formal	*Informal*
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.

ASSIST Activity 14:

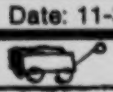
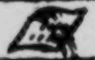
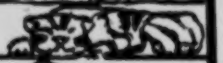
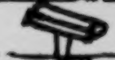
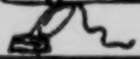
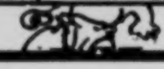
Formal: 1, 2, 6

Informal: 3, 4, 5

ASSIST Activity 15: *Assessment*—Unit 1

Objective:* *To be able to use an informal checklist.

Sharon was asked to complete the following reading worksheet by filling in the missing consonants. Her responses were as follows:

Name: Sharon	Date: 11-3
1. Wajom	
2. paper	
3. tider	
4. rasor	
5. vatuum	
6. diaber	

Complete the following checklist on the basis of her responses.

Student: Sharon	Yes	No	Sometimes
1. Recognizes initial consonant sounds			
2. Recognizes final consonant sounds			
3. Recognizes middle consonant sounds			

ASSIST Activity 15:

1. Yes 2. Sometimes 3. Sometimes

ASSIST Activity 16: *Assessment*—Unit 1

Objective: To be able to derive information from a child's responses.

A From your checklist, it was evident that Sharon could recognize initial consonants but had some difficulty with final and middle consonants. On the basis of her responses, what might be some of the reasons for her correct and incorrect answers?

B Of the following, check what seems to be the best skill level to emphasize for Sharon, given her developmental level. Give reasons for your answer.

_____ 1. Skills regarding different initial consonants mainly.
_____ 2. Skills regarding different final consonants mainly.
_____ 3. Skills regarding different middle consonants mainly.

ASSIST Activity 16:

A 1. Sharon seems to be able to recognize final consonant r well.
2. Sharon may have trouble recognizing the difference between final m and n.
3. Middle consonants seem to be most difficult, she may have done # 2, *paper*, correctly because she knows the word by sight, not by sounds.

B 1. No, she may already have these skills.
2. Yes, she may begin with final consonants she knows and build on her success until she gains further mastery.
3. No, this task may be too different for now.

Remember, these answers are "best guesses" given this limited assessment information. Much more information is needed.

STUDENT OBSERVATION FORM

NAME: ____________

DEFINITION OF BEHAVIOR:

DATE: ____________ OBSERVER: ____________ TIME: ________ to ________

TALLY: TOTAL: ____________

DATE: ____________ OBSERVER: ____________ TIME: ________ to ________

TALLY: TOTAL: ____________

DATE: ____________ OBSERVER: ____________ TIME: ________ to ________

TALLY: TOTAL: ____________

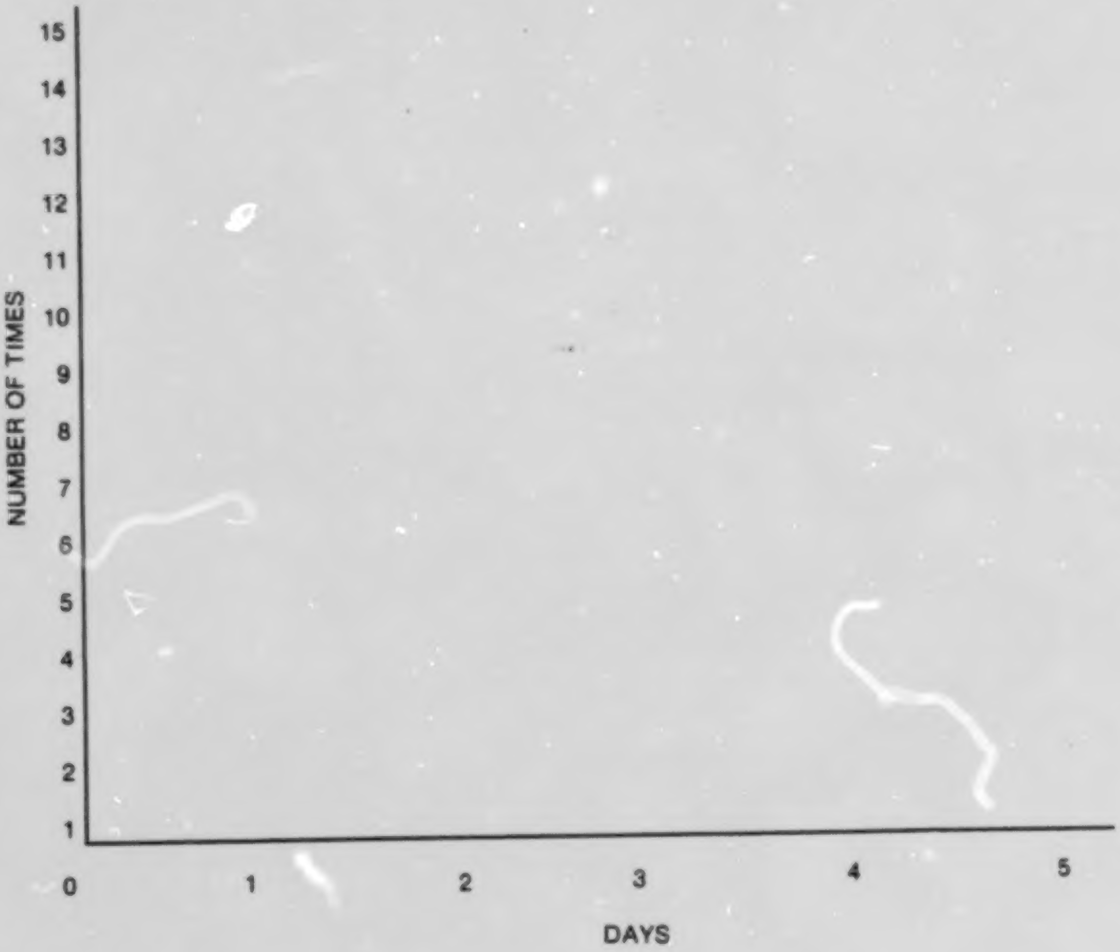
SAMPLE FORM 1

WEEKLY CHART

Name: ______________________ Week of ______________

Behavior: ______________________________________

Observer: ____________________



Sample Form 2

Instructional Unit 2

LONG-RANGE OBJECTIVES

LONG TERM OBJECTIVES

Introduction

The educational team uses many sources of information when planning an individualized program for a student. Although "testing" a child may be a headache for the program manager and/or the instructional associate, the information gathered from both formal and informal assessments may be significant when planning for the student. In order to determine the levels at which a student is presently functioning or behaving, it is necessary for the educational team to consider the child's motor development, communication skills, social development, cognitive skills, and personal autonomy skills. Although assessment is an on-going process, the initial gathering of information from a variety of sources is paramount.

Remember that assessment tells us something about the child. It indicates at what level she is presently functioning. It also identifies her strengths and weaknesses. This information is necessary so that the program manager can instruct the student at her appropriate level. The program manager can then project what the student needs to learn in the future. Then, she can determine the next developmental level the student will be able to achieve in each of the instructional areas. These decisions are called "long-range objectives". They give the instructional team a general framework upon which the necessary daily decisions can be based. These long-range objectives are statements which describe in a general way the goals which you have for the child.

It is the purpose of this instructional unit to make you, the instructional associate, aware of the process by which the program manager determines and formulates educational goals for the students in your classroom. These goals are a central part of each child's program and are required by the Education For All Handicapped Act. If you are a new instructional associate, you will need to learn what kinds of information help the teacher write appropriate long-range objectives. Like all other matters, gaining skills related to developing and implementing long-range objectives is not an overnight process. ASSIST will help you begin the process. If you are a highly trained or experienced instructional associate, you may even agree to help the teacher by writing long-range goals for some children. The particular role you play will depend on decisions made by your team on this issue.

Behavioral Objective:

At the end of this unit, you will be able to identify the relationships between assessment and long-range objectives. You will also be able to explain the importance of long-range objectives at the end of this unit.

LONG RANGE OBJECTIVES

Decisions are relevant not only for assessing the level of a child and making appropriate placements, but they also become relevant for Program Planning, the next major aspect of the instructional process. You have already learned *what* to assess and *how* to assess. Next, the important *what* and *how* questions must be asked when formulating an instructional unit. While each program manager has her own unique way of doing things, and while each school situation is different, each program manager must next decide what to teach and how to teach. These decisions are based upon the knowledge and information which was collected during formal and informal assessment of each student.

For example, suppose that you, the instructional associate, were given the task of recording the number of times a certain student was not doing what she was assigned or asked to do. Your task is simply to count and/or record the number of times you observe the student "off-task". Having applied your newly acquired skills of observing behavior, your assessment indicates that the student you were observing was off-task approximately 30 seconds per minute. This information which you have gathered over a period of time (observing off-task behavior 15 minutes a day for 5 days, for example) gives the program manager information on which to base a decision. The program manager must then decide whether or not off-task behavior is important enough to change. Does off-task behavior cause a problem in the classroom? Does it interfere with other students' performance? Is it a desired or undesired behavior? Is it a behavior which needs to be changed in order for the student to perform elsewhere? Is the student developmentally ready to handle a behavior change? If off-task behavior is viewed as a problem and the program manager has made a decision to change that behavior, then steps can be planned either to prepare the student for a behavior change or implement a strategy for behavior change.

Suppose that the program manager decides that off-task behavior needs to be changed in order for the student to begin to function more appropriately in the classroom. If the child is off-task, she is not learning. She is probably disrupting others around her. Because she is programmed into the mainstream of education, her off-task behavior needs to be changed for her to perform in other classes well. Let's say that this student is developmentally ready to work on changing the behavior. The program manager's decision is not based on an arbitrary choice. The decision is based upon well thought-out reasoning.

One of the most important questions the program manager must ask herself is why this behavior needs to be changed in order for the child to perform as a student in this classroom and/or other classrooms? The teacher has decided that if this student is going to perform at her expected level in school, she must be able to do what is expected of her. She will not be able to do this if she is off-task most of the time. Further, the student must be able to pay attention to her work in order to make advances in other developmental areas.

In sum, the program manager justifies the need for the behavior change from assessment information. Further, the program manager knows that the student is developmentally ready to increase the amount of time spent "on-task" (doing what is expected) because she already spends half her time "on-task". So keeping this in mind the program manager decides that an appropriate long-range objective or general goal for *this* student would be to: *Increase the amoung of on-task behavior.* Another way of stating this long-range goal would be to: *Increase attention span.*

In your classroom, the teacher may have access to certain curriculum guides or curricular programs which include a series of long-range objectives as a part of the package. These long-range objectives are common goals for exceptional children. Indeed, these prewritten goals can save the teacher much time and effort. Assessment, in this case, is still very necessary, however, to ensure that any prewritten long-range objectives are appropriate for the individual student.

Finally, in many schools, the teacher shares her decisions with other members of the student's educational team and the child's parents. This procedure, based upon the Education For All Handicapped Act, insures that everyone agrees with the importance of the chosen goals.

Any particular student may have one or more long-range objectives. Every student and every school is different, and so the number type of educational goals for any individual student will depend on 1) the student's own unique characteristics and needs, and on 2) the type and amount of resources available to the program manager. It is important to be realistic. The program manager selects only the number of long-range educational objectives which can be accomplished during one semester or one school year. The number of students in a classroom, the educational arrangement, and the number and kind of resources available will make a difference when deciding how many long-range objectives to plan. For example, if the program manager has 25 students in the classroom, only a limited number of resources, and only one instructional associate, then obviously fewer educational objectives will be determined for each student. On the other hand, if the program manager has 10 students, one or more instructional associates, and a variety of other resource persons both in and out of school, a larger number of objectives can be realistically generated for each student.

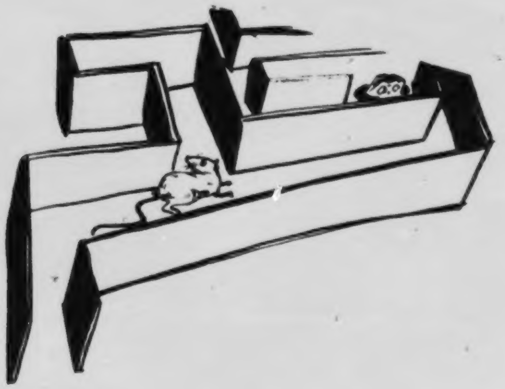
What if a particular student needs many changes in behavior? The program manager may have selected many long-range objectives. The list of objectives may include too many behaviors to work on at one time. It then becomes necessary for the program manager to set some priorities. Which behaviors are the most important ones to change for this student at this time? Using her best judgment, the program manager must select the most crucial behaviors. The remainder of the long-range objectives are not forgotten, but only postponed until the student has nearly completed or completed the ones first chosen.

The decision-making process of determining and selecting appropriate long-range objectives for each student is a difficult and time-consuming one. You may ask yourself, why bother? Why does the program manager spend so much time and energy at the beginning of the year assessing each student and developing objectives?

Long-range objectives give the program manager and other members of the instructional team a general direction, a goal towards which the student can be directed. A quote from *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* may help to illustrate and clarify the importance of educational objectives:

"Cheshire Puss," she began, . . . "would you tell me, please, which way I ought to go from here?" "That depends a good deal on where you want to get to," said the Cat. "I don't much care where—" said Alice. "Then it doesn't matter which way to go," said the Cat.*

Without knowing where you are attempting to go, you never know if and when you get there. The same is true for the educational process — without knowing what the instruction is attempting to do, little can be said about what, if anything was accomplished. Long-range objectives, therefore, provide a direction and an order to the efforts of the program manager and other members of the instructional team. Long-range objectives provide all interested people with a general guide to follow for the school year. Through the information she collects from assessments, the program manager decides what will be appropriate for each student during the school year. You have learned that these general decisions are called long-range objectives. Long-range objectives provide a framework to assist in the development of more specific school programs for each student in the classroom.



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*Lewis Carrol. *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*. New York, New York: Random House, Inc. 1946, pp. 71-72.

Summary

Long-range objectives are statements describing the ideals you are aiming for over the period of a school year. These broad general statements provide the instructional team with a guide or direction for each student's educational program. However, they do not spell out specific attainable or measurable achievements. Objectives which cover an entire school year or one semester give all interested people knowledge of what is expected of the student by the end of the term. Therefore, long-range objectives provide the program manager with a framework upon which daily instructional decisions can be based.

ASSIST Activity 17: *Long-Term Objectives*—Unit 2

Objective: To demonstrate knowledge of broad objectives or goals.

1. Answer the following questions by filling in the blanks.
   a) The program manager must decide ________________ to teach and then how to teach.
   b) Programming decisions are based on information gathered from ________________ and ________________ assessment of each student.
   c) The program manager must decide if the ________________ is appropriate for [illegible] student.
   d) The program manager must decide if the student is ________________ ready for this behavior.
   e) The program manager usually selects the number of long-range objectives that she would like for the student to achieve during ________________ .
   f) Long-range objectives give the program manager and the other members of the instructional team a ________________ for where the student should be headed.

informal
one semester/year
formal

what
objective
direction or guide

developmentally

ASSIST Activity 17:

1. a) what
   b) formal, informal
   c) objective
   d) developmentally
   e) one school year
   f) direction or guide

ASSIST Activity 18: *Long-Range Objectives*—Unit 2

Objective: To apply knowledge of long-range objectives to anecdotal records.

1. Below is a description of a self-contained classroom for most of the day. The classroom is designed to provide healthy support services to help students eventually make the transition to mainstream education. After reading the description, check the goals which you feel would be appropriate for this particular student for the school.

> Judy is a 7 year old female whose I.Q. is recorded as 60. She behaves appropriately at all times in the classroom, but does not like to play with other children. She has fine-motor problems.

The appropriate educational goals for Judy this year might include:

____________ a) To stay in her seat while in the classroom.
____________ b) To play with other children.
____________ c) To increase ability to run or throw a ball.
____________ d) To use a pencil or scissors.
____________ e) To say the alphabet.

2. Here is another description of a student. Check the educational goals you feel would be most appropriate for the student this school year.

> Carl is a 15 year old male in a resource room. He is able to approach grade level performance in arithmetic, but is 3 years behind in reading. He enjoys being at school with other students, but at times disrupts the classroom.

The appropriate educational goals for Carl this year might include:

____________ a) Decrease the number of times he becomes disruptive.
____________ b) To focus only on math skills.
____________ c) To improve reading skills.
____________ d) To get along with other students.

Write a *brief* explanation of why you chose or did not choose each of the educational objectives.

Educational Objective	Chosen Because	or	Not Chosen Because
1.	____________		____________
2.	____________		____________
3.	____________		____________
4.	____________		____________

ASSIST Activity 18:

1. b, d
2. a, c

LONG-RANGE OBJECTIVES FOR:

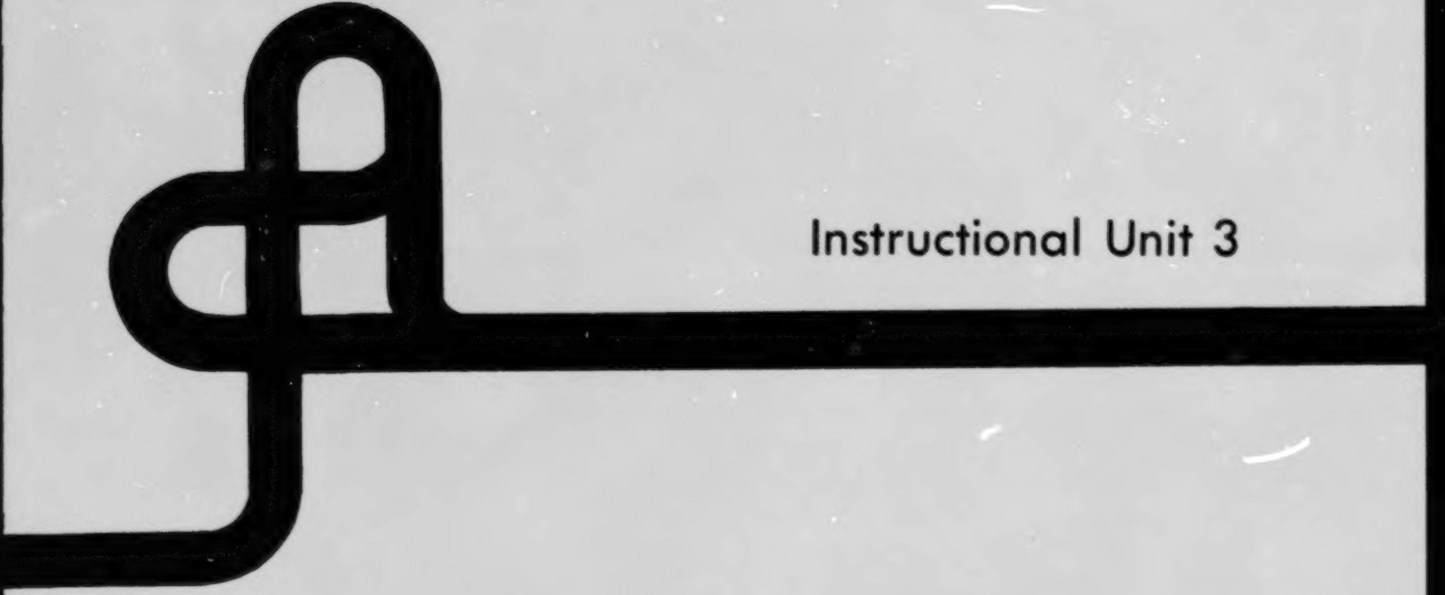
Student's Name: ______________________________

The present long-range objectives we are working on are:

Student's Name: ______________________________

The present long-range objectives we are working on are:

Sample Form 3



Instructional Unit 3

SHORT-RANGE OBJECTIVES

INTRODUCTION

The instructional process so far has dealt with *assessment* of each student, and development of *long-range objectives*. You will recall that each of these areas is important for you to know. Formal and informal assessment provide the basis for goals or long-range objectives. Since long-range objectives are stated in general terms, the program manager must decide *how* the objectives will be reached. This procedures involves breaking down the goal into small reasonable steps. These steps are specific behaviors which terminate in the student performing the long-range objective. These smaller, specific behaviors are called *short-range objectives.*

Short-range objectives are usually stated in very specific terms and inform the instructional team what steps to take "behaviorally" to reach a goal. That is why short-term objectives are sometimes called "behavioral objectives".

As the instructional associate, it is important for you to thoroughly understand each student's short-range objectives. You should be aware of what has already been taught to the student and what is currently being taught. With this information, it is important to know what the next step will be in teaching. Since you already know the long-range objectives and how they were developed, you can provide valuable instruction to the students by having knowledge of their short-term objectives and how they were developed.

The purpose of this Instructional Unit is to provide you with knowledge relating to the development of short-range objectives. This knowledge will include how to go about writing behavioral objectives. Such knowledge of short-range objectives will help you assist the teacher in whatever way is acceptable to both of you. There is no question that this task is difficult and time-consuming. This is a skill area that must be continually refined.

If you are a new instructional associate, the procedures involved in developing short-range objectives will probably seem confusing. It will take some time to learn to write short-range objectives properly and to understand the different parts of short-range objectives. In fact, in most cases the teacher will take sole responsibility for this task. In a few cases, if you are a highly trained or highly experienced instructional associate, you may be asked by the teacher to assist her in writing short-range objectives.

Behavioral Objective:

At the end of this unit, you will be able to identify a short-range objective by stating its components.

At the end of this unit, you will be able to identify the relationship between long and short-range objectives and discuss this information with your program manager.

SHORT-RANGE OBJECTIVES

You will recall that long-range objectives or goals are statements that propose desired and valued competencies, a state of being, and/or general skill levels. Goals or long-range objectives represent and lend direction to the short-range objectives within an educational program.

This is a goal:

- to develop open-mindedness and curiosity as an effective and independent learner — in or out of school.

Did you notice that the goal is rather general? In contrast, you will learn that behavioral objectives are much more specific and precise. Short-range objectives help you to move in the direction of goals. Behavioral objective statements are specific and define some result which is *attainable* and *measurable*.

Remember that behavior is acting — a way of doing something. In order to test whether desired behavior has occurred, you as the instructional associate and the program manager must be able to see something happen. So, behavior is observable and measurable. To know whether the learner's behavior has changed after the instructional unit has been presented, an objective is stated in observable terms, defining specifically what behavior is to be the product of the instruction.

Deciding on a specific, observable behavior is only one part in writing comprehensive short-range objectives, however. The program manager must communicate with other members of the instructional team — including parents — exactly what is expected of the student in very precise and specific statements. These statements must include three major components:

1. the *behavior* — A description of exactly what will be expected of the student upon completion of the specific educational program.
2. the *conditions* — A statement of the circumstances under which the behavior is to be observed and the materials to be used.
3. the *criterion* — A statement of how and to what and to what extent the task is to be evaluated.

An instructional objective describes the final outcome of instruction in terms of observable behavior, states the conditions under which the behavior will be performed, and specifies the criterion by which the behavior may be evaluated. Below is an example of a short-range objective which has the three component parts.

Given 10 pictures and 10 sentences on index cards describing these pictures, the student will be able to match those pictures with the appropriate index card without mistake in five minutes.

This short-range objective contains the 3 components which can be separated using the following table:

Conditions	*Behavior*	*Criteria*
Given 10 pictures and 10 sentences on index cards describing those pictures.	the student will be able to match the picture with the appropriate index cards.	without mistake in 5 minutes

Remember that a short-range objective contains three critical components. They are 1) the behavior, 2) the conditions, and 3) the criteria.

It is essential to remain flexible when making decisions using short-range objectives. Perhaps, the student could not satisfy the objective as written, but could complete the task in 6 minutes. Perhaps the student could match five pictures and five cards without mistake. When a child cannot complete an objective as written, the teacher modifies the different parts of the short-range objective until she pinpoints what the child can and cannot do.

Behavioral objectives attempt to identify exactly what the student should be able to perform at the completion of the unit of instruction. Short-range objectives that are written in complete detail answer four questions. The previous example will demonstrate this.

1. Who	the student
2. Will do what	match 10 pictures and 10 word cards
3. by when	5 min.
4. to what extent	without mistake

When you write objectives for your instructional unit, the idea is to communicate to any interested person (parents, other teachers, principal): 1) what you expect your student to learn as a result of the instructional unit, and 2) how you plan to show that learning has taken place.

Appropriate verbs are helpful cues in distinguishing *goals* and *objectives* and in writing short-range objectives from long-range objectives.

For example:

Long-range objective or goal — The student will learn to cooperate with peers.

Short-range or behavioral objective — The student will demonstrate her sense of cooperation of with peers by periodically sharing with them and playing or spending free time with them.

Below are some common verbs useful for writing goals and objectives.

VERBS APPROPRIATE TO GOALS:

1. To understand
2. To know
3. To enjoy
4. To believe
5. To really understand
6. To grasp significane of
7. To learn

VERBS APPROPRIATE TO OBJECTIVE:

1. To write
2. To identify
3. To solve
4. To construct
5. To analyze
6. To criticize

Like long-range objectives, many curriculum guides and curricular programs are including sets of short-range objectives for each long-range objective in the program. These prewritten objectives can certainly save the teacher much time. However, in general, most of these programs only include the behavioral component when listing short-range objectives. To make the short-range objective comprehensive, the conditions and criteria appropriate to the school and the student need to be added.

Like long-range objectives, behavioral objectives are required by the Education For All Handicapped Act. At this point, however, many teachers are having difficulty finding the time to write adequate sets of short-range objectives for each student. Many teachers feel fortunate if they can find the time to write the behavioral component only. Your assistance to the teacher will hopefully help her find more time to devise appropriate short-range objectives for each student and thereby make it easier for her to fulfill the obligations of the Education For All Handicapped Act.

TASK ANALYSIS

Even though every attempt is made to make sure that a short range objective is appropriate for a child's educational needs and skill level, sometimes the child still cannot complete the objective. When this happens, it is necessary for the educational team to take a closer look at the short range objective. The short range objective may be more complex than we think. Many times, behaviors which we as adults consider simple and routine are really complex combinations of many smaller behaviors which incorporate the use of senses, thoughts, and motor activities. For example, adults brush their teeth daily. We have completed this task so often over the years, we now give little thought to what is actually involved in this behavior. However, upon further inspection what we as adults consider to be a simple behavior could involve the following subtasks:

1. Turn on cold water
2. Place tube of toothpaste in nondominant hand
3. Unscrew cap of toothpaste

4. Place cap of toothpaste in sink
5. Pick up toothbrush
6. Wet toothbrush
7. Squeeze toothpaste on toothbrush
8. Place toothpaste on sink
9. Put toothbrush in mouth
10. Brush up and down on front portion of teeth
11. Brush up and down on left portion of teeth
12. Brush up and down on right portion of teeth
13. Brush top of lower left teeth
14. Brush top of lower right teeth
15. Brush bottom of upper left teeth
16. Brush bottom of upper right teeth
17. Brush behind lower teeth
18. Brush behind upper teeth
19. Spit toothpaste in sink
20. Rinse toothbrush
21. Return toothbrush to holder
22. Pick up glass
23. Fill glass with water
24. Put water in mouth
25. Rinse mouth with water
26. Spit out water
27. Pour out remaining water from glass
28. Return glass to holder
29. Pick up toothpaste with nondominant hand
30. Screw on cap of toothpaste
31. Return toothpaste to proper location
32. Pick up towel
33. Wipe mouth
34. Return towel to proper place

What seemed to us originally as being a simple and routine life skill is really a rather complex behavior made up of 34 small behaviors that take place in particular sequence. The skills involved in this task are various fine motor skills and the cognitive skill of sequencing. To accomplish the objective of brushing teeth, a person must be able to perform each sub-task in the correct order.

As an assessment tool, the analysis of a specific behavior into its component parts provides the members of the instructional team with a checklist of the smaller behaviors. Any member of the instructional team can then assess whether the student can or cannot perform each sub-task and how much, if any, assistance is needed by the student to perform each of the sub-tasks. If the student can perform some but not all sub-tasks in a specific behavior, the student then is incapable at this point of performing the total task. Instruction then only needs to be provided in the sub-skills which the student cannot perform. When the missing sub-tasks have been learned and combined with the skills the student already has the behavioral or short-range objectives can then be performed.

Given a rather concrete action such as brushing teeth, it is relatively easy for the instructional team to assess what the student can do, cannot do, and the type of assistance which must be provided. However, task analysis is very difficult when dealing with most skill and knowledge areas. Let us examine the following short-range objective:

Given the six words can, Jan, man, pan, ran, and tan in written form, David will be able to read each word orally at 100% accuracy.

This relatively simple cognitive task requires auditory skills, visual skills, sequencing skills, rhyming skills and others. Each of these skills could in turn be analyzed into numerous sub-skills. Even if we could accomplish this feat, few of us could accurately place the various sub-skills in sequence.

Even though it may at times be too difficult, time-consuming, and frustrating when attempting to comprehensively task analyze an objective, the principle of task analysis or "thinking analytically" is still very important. Generally, the program manager analyzes the task as thoroughly as possible without spending exaggerated lengths of time on the process. More detailed task analysis may need to be done later if the program manager sees that a child can perform all the sub-tasks which were listed for an objective, but still cannot perform that objective. In other words, this procedure is particularly important when a child is having difficulty meeting an objective the teacher felt was appropriate.

Let us return to the six word reading objective:

Given the words can, Jan, man, pan, ran, tan, David will be able to read the words orally without mistake.

The teacher finds that David word attacks some of the words but is stumped by some others. "Thinking analytically" she broke the objective down into sub-tasks in an effort to figure out what factors are causing David problems.

Task Analysis	Can Do	Cannot Do
1. Word attacks "an"		
2. Visually discriminates "an" in the six target words		
3. Auditorily discriminates initial consonants c, f, m, p, r, t		
4. Visually discriminates the initial consonants in the six target words		
5. Blends c with an f with an m with an p with an r with an t with an		
6. Word attacks each word after blending		

From this analysis, the program manager can see what the student can and cannot do, The astute program manager can see that this student can blend "an" with initial consonants whose sound can be maintained (f-f-f, m-m-m, r-r-r) but not with stopped sound consonants. The teacher may decide to strengthen blending skills with non-stopped sounds and then move to blending stopped sounds later.

Task analysis, therefore, does two things:

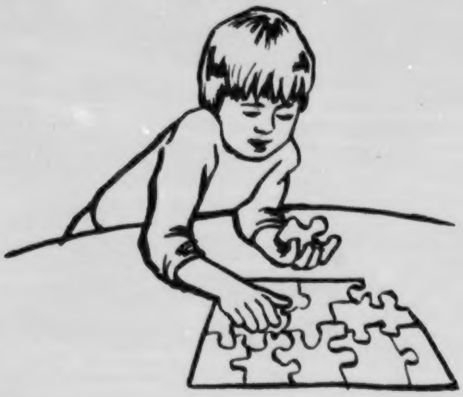
1. Task analysis helps make sure that the steps used to teach an objective are effective and correctly sequenced.

2. Task analysis provides the program manager a method for "digging deeper" to find the sources of a student's problems.

Chaining and Reverse Chaining

If the assessment of a specific task indicates that the student *cannot* perform any of the sub-tasks, then instruction could begin with step number 1. After the student can perform step 1, instruction is offered in step 1 and 2. After these two steps have been mastered, instruction is offered in steps 1, 2, and 3. This process, known as "chaining", continues until the last step or component of the task analysis has been mastered. New steps are not introduced until the step the student is presently working on has been completely mastered. Only one step is taught at a time. For example, in the previous example, the first step is to word attack "an", the second step to usually discriminate "an" in the words, etc. The steps are taught in order until the objective is reached.

Another method of teaching a task which has been analyzed is starting with the very last step and moving backwards one step at a time until step number 1 has been achieved. This method is known as "reverse chaining or "reverse shaping". For certain tasks and students, this method is quite effective. For example, puzzle activities are often used by teachers to strengthen visual discrimination skills. Rather than just giving the student the puzzle to put together, teachers often give a child a puzzle that is assembled minus one piece. By adding the last piece the student is provided with success and a sense of accomplishment immediately. Moreover, the part-whole relationship the teacher is aiming for is more easily seen by the student. Following the students initial success more pieces can be taken out, working back toward the initial sub-task where the student must put the puzzle together from the beginning. This process is known as "reversed shaping" because instruction is first being offered in those sub-tasks which came at the end of the analysis.



Summary

Comprehensive short-range objectives give specific information as to exactly what materials are to be given to the student, what the student will be doing as she engages in the behavior, and on what basis the behavior is to be evaluated. This information provides the members of the instructional team with specific statements regarding the daily educational program and how it is to be carried out. Written properly the statement will leave little room to question exactly what is to be taught, how it is to be taught, and how the student's efforts are to be evaluated.

Breaking down a task or a short-range objective into smaller behaviors is known as "task analysis". Task analysis is especially necessary when a student cannot complete an objective even though every attempt has been made to ensure that the objective was appropriate for that child. Task analysis can assist the instructional team in assessment and in teaching some behaviors. Two methods can be utilized in task analysis as a back-up tool: 1. chaining and 2. reverse chaining.

In chaining a task is taught in sequential order beginning with the first step in the analysis and proceeding to the last step. In reverse chaining instruction begins with the final step and moves backward until the first step has been accomplished. Reverse shaping offers the student a feeling of accomplishment upon task completion. The type of task and the characteristics of the student should determine which method is utilized.

Both long-range and short-range objectives help the program manager and instructional associate provide instruction that is appropriate to individual student's needs and readiness. It also provides an organized way of keeping track of individual learning to assure that subsequent instruction is appropriate and that positive change has occurred.

ASSIST Activity 19: *Short-Term Objectives*—Unit 3

Objective: To differentiate between long-range and short-range objectives.

1. Below you will find a long-range objective. Think about all of the smaller behaviors which make up this objective and write them down in the spaces provided. State the smaller behaviors in terms that are observable.

Long-range objecitve:

At the end of the school year, Mary will be able to clean the house.
The smaller behaviors involved in cleaning a house are: (List 10 behaviors in any order.)

a) ______________________________
b) ______________________________
c) ______________________________
d) ______________________________
e) ______________________________
f) ______________________________
g) ______________________________
h) ______________________________
i) ______________________________
j) ______________________________

2. List some verbs which can be used to write or state short-term objectives behaviorally.

a)
b)
c)
d)
e)

3. Which *one* of the following statements is presented in behavioral terms?

__________ a) The student will be able to pronounce the sounds "c" and "z".
__________ b) The student will understand the difference between sounds "z".

4. Try this one. Which of these two statements is expressed in behavioral terms?

__________ a) The student will know the legislative progress in the American federal government.
__________ a) Given 10 true-false questions on the American legislative processes, the student will be able to correctly identify which statements are true and which ones are false.

ASSIST Activity 19:

1. a) sweeping
b) washing dishes
c) dusting etc.

2. Examples:
a) to write
b) to point
c) to match
d) to recite
e) to assemble

3. a

4. b

ASSIST Activity 20: *Short-Range Objectives*—Unit 3

Objective: To be able to identify the components of short-range objectives and their purpose.

1. Given the following objective, write the answer to the following questions:

   "When asked to select and match a group of 20 words containing 10 synonyms, the student will select 8 of the synonyms in 4 minutes."

a) What behavior is specified?
b) Who will behave?
c) Under what conditions will she behave?
d) What criterion of success is demanded of the student?
e) What evidence will be accepted that the objective has been achieved?

2. Write an objective pertaining to the instructional unit you and the program manager are developing.

Now check:
a) What is the behavior specified?
b) Who will behave?
c) Under what conditions will she behave?
d) What criterion of success is demanded of her?
e) What evidence will be accepted that the objective has been achieved?
(omit if this point isn't relevant)

3. Stated below is a short-range objective. Supply the missing component.

   "Given 25 multiplication problems, the student will be able to answer correctly 20 problems within 5 minutes."

Conditions	*Behavior*	*Criteria*
Given 25 multiplication problems		correctly 20 problems within 5 minutes

4. Given the following behavioral short-range objective, fill in the missing components.

   "Given 10 new vocabulary words, the student will be able to correctly pronounce and spell 8 words within 5 days."

Conditions	*Behavior*	*Criteria*
	The student will correctly pronounce and spell	

5. Write short-range objectives for one student whom you serve.

   Student: ____

   The short-range objective(s) that I will be responsible for is (are):

ASSIST Activity 20:

1. a) selecting synonyms
   b) student
   c) given a request
   d) 8 out of 10 synonyms in 4 minutes
   e) the demonstration of the selections by the matching
2. the student will be able to answer
3. Conditions: Given 10 new vocabulary words
   Criteria: 8 words in 5 days
4. Answer is specific to your situation

ASSIST Activity 21: *Task Analysis*—Unit 3

Objective: To demonstrate knowledge and skill of task analyzing a short-range objective.

Below is a task analysis; fill in the missing sub task.

Short-range objective:

With a student sitting at a desk with a puzzle before her, the student will assemble the puzzle pieces correctly 10 out of 10 times.

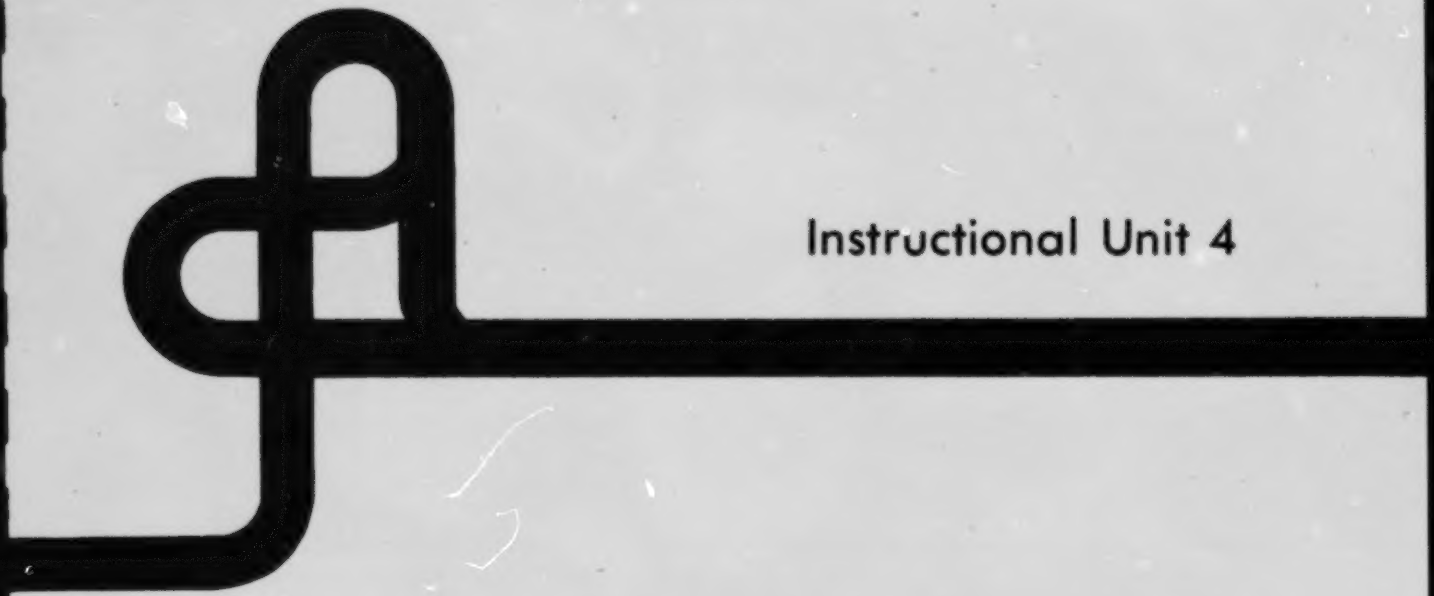
Task: To assemble pieces of a puzzle.

Task Analysis:

a) Take seat at desk.
b) Position puzzle and puzzle pieces before her.
c)
d) Place piece in correct position.
e) Pick up adjoining piece.
f)
g) Continue until puzzle is complete.

ASSIST Activity 21:

c) Pick up puzzle piece
f) Fit adjoining piece into puzzle



Instructional Unit 4

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Introduction

You have read how assessment data forms the basis for program decisions. Then decisions are broken into teachable units with specifically designated steps by which the short-term objectives, and hence, the long-term objective may be reached. In this unit, you will explore some behavioral and instructional strategies that will be useful to you in helping students achieve educational objectives. These strategies are the tactics or methods the teacher uses for meeting any stated goals.

Behavioral Objective: At the end of this unit you will be able to identify and utilize general and specific behavioral strategies.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Strategies are used everyday in human interaction. We are continually responding to the behavior of others just as they are responding to the cues or messages we give them.

As an instructional associate, you will be continually interacting, formally and informally, with students. Your job is to assist the teacher in providing the appropriate educational experiences that will help children develop the complex skills needed to become as independent as possible. The importance of students learning the prerequisite and related skills of independent living cannot be overemphasized.

Learning is a behavioral change that is lasting, and one behavior can be used to develop another behavior or skill. The question is, how is this done? So far, you have learned how assessment data is used to develop long-range objectives, which are then analyzed and broken into teaching units called short-range objectives. In the process of planning lessons, you prepare not only materials to enable the student to reach the objective, but you also plan instructional strategies to assist in this process. Instructional strategies are methods or techniques that you use to change behavior. These strategies include how you react to what a student says or does and how you arrange the physical surrounding for the lesson.

Areas of Behavior Change

There are three major ways for you as a member of the instructional team to change the behavior of the students. You will want to:

1. Decrease, or get rid of, an inappropriate behavior.
2. Establish an entirely new behavior.
3. Increase the rate or improve the quality of a positive behavior the student already possesses.

Decreasing Inappropriate Behaviors — Establishing New Behaviors

General Strategies

Decreasing inappropriate behaviors and establishing new behaviors are major concerns of teachers of the mildly handicapped. Many mildly handicapped children obtained the label "emotionally disturbed," "learning disabled," or "mentally retarded" due to behaviors that were assessed as inappropriate for a school classroom. The ability of the educational team to decrease students' negative behaviors and establish positive behaviors of students is vital for the team's feelings of success and satisfaction. Failure in this effort can make the classroom an unhappy place for both students and instructors.

To do this, most educational teams try to employ strategies which prevent inappropriate behaviors from occurring in the first place. These strategies are more desirable and usually more effective than strategies used after inappropriate behavior has already occurred. The first step toward decreasing negative behaviors in this way is to make sure that the classroom environment supports positive behavior. People behave differently according to the environment. People act like church-goers in church, spectators at football games, shoppers in stores, etc. The objective is for children to act like students at school. If a classroom is chaotic and disorganized, children's behavior will reflect that environment. When the children perceive that the classroom is a place for learning, however, there is greater chance that they will act accordingly.

To ensure student-like behavior, program managers devise classroom rules. As an instructional associate you will need to know the classroom rules and the reasons behind them. Most teachers attempt to devise just enough classroom rules to promote positive classroom behavior, but not so many rules that the classroom is a rigid, strict, and unhappy place. Too rigid or too lax a set of rules can be sources for negative child behavior. As teachers (and parents!) will tell you, children search and test the boundaries of what is and what is not appropriate behavior. In most cases, if there are no rules, children will go beyond the boundaries of appropriate behavior even though they might not really want to do so. If the rules are too strict, the classroom ceases to be a place for search and discovery.

To promote appropriate student behaviors, program managers also devise classroom routines. However, if the routines become too repititious resulting boredom can become a source of negative behavior. On the other hand, if there are no routines, children do not know what to expect. This can lead to unhealthy feelings of insecurity for some children which, in turn, promote negative behavior. As an instructional associate, you will need to support and follow the rules and routines made by the program manager. Only by supporting each other will positive student behaviors be encouraged.

As an instructional associate, you will be a major factor in the classroom environment. It is essential that you do not become an element in the classroom environment that promotes negative behavior. If your presence encourages positive student behaviors, your value to the program manager will be great and you will certainly be a complementary member of the instructional team.

To accomplish this goal, above all else, you must establish positive human relationships with the children. If the children perceive that you sincerely care for them, that you are concerned

about their growth, and that you have their best interests in mind, they will be much less likely to behave in ways that are displeasing to you. In fact, the desire to please you may become a source of motivation for the children to eliminate negative behaviors and acquire positive behaviors.

However, if the children perceive your love as weakness, you are inviting them to test the boundaries again. You must let the children know that you care enough for them to prevent them from taking part in inappropriate behaviors which you feel are detrimental to their development. Lack of adult leadership is resented by children in the long run. Firm but compassionate concern is the foundation for positive relationships with children.

Positive human relationships are much easier to develop with children if your behavior is consistent. If your behavior is inconsistent, the children will not know what to expect from you. You will be a source of confusion rather than a source of stability in their lives. As a source of stability, it is essential that you maintain emotional self-control, objectivity, and patience under stressful conditions. If you lose your temper, cry, or otherwise lose composure, you may cease to be a good model for the students. This is not to say that you should not show the human emotions of happiness, sadness, or anger. Children must know that we are human. However, emotions must be shown in ways that the children can respect and model.

If the children are to respect you, you must respect them. You should not communicate in a demeaning or infantile style with children. Nor must you "play favorites" or attempt to force the children into one mold. Each child is an individual with a unique personality and with unique interests that must be accepted and appreciated. Indeed, if there are children of different races, creeds, or cultural backgrounds in your classroom, you must suppress and overcome any prejudicial attitudes which you may have been taught. Not only must you overcome prejudice, but you must by your actions communicate an appreciation of each child's background. Also, you must learn the difference between behavior that is culturally different and behavior that is inappropriate. Confusing the two is prejudicial practice.

Over time, you will gain experience in dealing with classroom behaviors of children. You will need to learn to determine the appropriateness of children's behaviors in various contexts. For example, for students to talk during a reading lesson may be inappropriate, but for them to talk at a science learning center about a display may be not only appropriate but desirable. You will learn to identify cues which indicate that a child is heading toward inappropriate activity. When Mark who tends to fight in the classroom is casting a threatening eye toward Henry, it is a good idea to attempt to positively redirect his attentions before fists fly. On the other hand, there are times when it is best not to intervene. Sometimes minor sequences of inappropriate behavior between children come and go quickly. Intervening can make too much of a minor situation and worsen the conflict. In fact, ignoring inappropriate behaviors can be an excellent way to decrease them. Sally may whimper to gain an adult's attention. By always responding, Sally's inappropriate behavior is actually rewarded.

Nevertheless, there are times when intervening is absolutely necessary. Obviously, if two children are viciously fighting, ignoring them is irresponsible. There may even be times when the behavior is so extremely inappropriate that both you and the program manager will need to call upon other school personnel for assistance and have the child removed from the classroom. Usually, most program managers make every effort to first handle problems in the classroom. The decision about when and when not to seek resource assistance in stressful situations is the program manager's responsibility, but there may be instances when you might need to make such a decision.

As in Sally's case, there are reasons for children's misbehaviors. Many times what is inappropriate from an adult viewpoint is very appropriate from the child's viewpoint. Sally found that crying was a very good way to get attention from adults. In other words, if we look closely enough, we can find that a child's inappropriate behaviors are being rewarded in some way. The task for the instructional team is to discover the sources of reward for the inappropriate behaviors and remove those rewards as thoroughly as possible. Most importantly, however, the instructional team must ensure that children are taught alternative appropriate behaviors and that those behaviors are rewarded to a greater degree than the inappropriate behaviors were rewarded. Unless there is an alternative way to cope, a child may feel threatened or defenseless. Essentially then, the task is to simultaneously decrease the inappropriate behavior and establish a positive alternative.

One strategy for decreasing inappropriate behaviors that raises difficult questions is punishment. Punishments can take many forms — physical punishment (spanking, for example), verbal punishment, taking away privileges, etc. Punishments can also be very mild or very severe. In all cases, punishment involves inflicting some form of pain upon the student for some inappropriate behavior. The emphasis is upon getting the inappropriate behavior stopped rather than providing the student an opportunity to behave appropriately.

In general, more severe punishments are used by teachers only as a last resort, if at all. There are many reasons for not using severe punishments. First, physically punishing a child or verbally humiliating a child does not teach new appropriate ways of behaving. In fact, since adults are models for children, punishing a child severely in these ways can teach socially undesirable behavior. Secondly, many teachers recognize that severe punishments are usually an outlet for an adult's frustration and anger at not being able to handle a situation. Punitive actions in these cases just interfere with good human relationships. Third, many schools have very strict clear guidelines that prohibit such severe punishments. You must be aware of these guidelines and know your teacher's interpretation of them.

At some times, however, your teacher may feel it necessary to impose more mild punishments on a child. The teacher may feel that the inappropriate behavior is so dangerous to the child herself, the other children, or so disruptive of the classroom environment that emphasis must be placed on getting the behavior stopped. Teachers then try to use as mild a punishment as possible, yet still be effective. Most teachers also attempt to avoid physical punishments as much as possible. Finally teachers try to make sure that the actions they take are for good reasons and not just a personal temper tantrum.

Most importantly, you must have a thorough understanding of your teacher's feelings and practices concerning punishment. You must never punish a child so severely that you violate your teacher's practices or school guidelines.

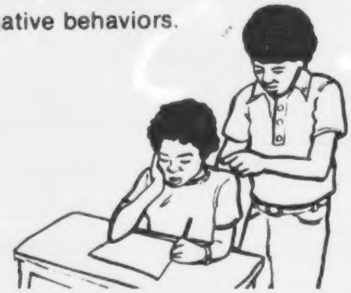
Like other stages of the instructional process, your value to the program manager at this stage can be great. If you obtain a high degree of skill in implementing instructional strategies, you provide the program manager with many more options. For instance, when the program manager did not have your assistance, it was necessary at times to interrupt the ongoing instruction in order to counsel a child behaving inappropriately. Your presence should enable the program manager to either let you intervene when a child is misbehaving or to rely upon you to continue the instruction while she counsels the child.

It takes much time and effort to reach these understandings. It will be some time before you truly understand your strengths, weaknesses, abilities, tolerance levels, etc. when working with children. It will take some time before you will coordinate your instructional style with the program manager's and use her instructional strategies in different classroom situations. The better you blend your style, knowledge, and skills with the program manager's, the better the instructional effort will be.

Specific Strategies.

The general instructional strategies that have been discussed enable the instructional team to arrange a learning environment which minimizes "off-task" or inappropriate behaviors. In spite of the best efforts of the instructional team to arrange a positive and healthy educational enviroment, however, there will still be children who will need personal instruction in order to decrease persistent inappropriate classroom behaviors.

These attempts to decrease inappropriate behavior of individuals must follow the same procedures as any other instructional effort. Teaching appropriate social skills or classroom behaviors should be as much a part of the educational program as the teaching of academic skills. First, assessment data needs to be gathered. Let us take the example of John, a child whose abusive behavior toward his peers is causing the teacher concern. Informal assessment should indicate the nature and scope of John's inappropriate behavior. Is he verbally malicious, physically aggressive, or both. How does he show the abuse (verbal threats, hitting, biting)? When is he abusive (constantly, when unsupervised, after recess)? Are there any particular children with whom John is more abusive or less abusive? Are the instructional demands appropriate for John's developmental level and personal interests? Frustration, boredom, or lack of success can lead to negative behaviors.



The informal assessment may indicate that John's abusive behavior tends to follow a certain pattern: 1) John verbally demands something from a peer or orders a peer to do something in a threatening manner, 2) John's peer refuses his demand, and 3) John attempts (and often succeeds) to hit the other child. More specific observational data may also indicate:

a. The misbehavior tends to be continuous, beginning at the start of the day, usually when John needs materials or wants something another child has.

b. John's threats are sometimes rewarded since he achieves what he demands, and his hitting is rewarded since it releases his anger if his demands are refused.

c. John does not make requests upon adults, probably since his request behavior is not effective or rewarded by adults.

From the assessment the teacher may decide upon the long-range objectives: 1) To decrease John's hitting behavior, and 2) To establish positive communication strategies when making requests. A short-range objective may be: Given a need for school materials (pencil, paper, etc.), John will ask the teacher or instructional associate for them in a positive verbal manner by saying for example, "Ms. Jones, may I please have a (some) paper?" Task analysis of the objective might be:

1. Auditorally discriminates threatening and non-threatening verbal requests.
2. Makes the required positive verbal request in an instructional situation.
3. Makes the required positive verbal request in actual situations.

The teacher's strategy is to make sure John knows the difference between threatening and non-threatening verbal behavior. Next, she needs to teach John the appropriate option in an instructional situation. Finally, John needs to use the appropriate option in actual situations with adults. The teacher may feel that if John can establish appropriate behavior with adults, it will be easier for him to use the appropriate behavior with his peers. Since materials are needed first thing in the morning, she may attempt to get John to request materials from her at the start of the day. In this way, John gets off to an immediate success experience, and the teacher has a chance to reward him for appropriate behavior.

Rewarding Behavior

In teaching John or any other child new behaviors, it is desirable to reward or reinforce the child whenever the behavior desired is successfully completed, especially at the early stages of the instruction. We all like to know we have done a good job, and when someone tells us so this increases the chances of us working again. (In fact, this is a practice the instructional team should use with each other). Letting John know he is doing the task correctly by rewarding or reinforcing him increases the chances that he will perform in the desired way again. Nutritional snacks, and praise are some ways to reinforce children. However, just as children must learn skills for adulthood, they must also adopt adult reinforcers. Therefore, if snacks work with John you should pair each time you give him a snack with a more adult reinforcement, such as "Thank you

for asking for paper so nicely." Eventually, the verbal reinforcers should be sufficient. Two other important facts about rewards need to be mentioned. The same reward may not work for all students. John may work hard for snacks, but Sam may not. Also, behavior should be rewarded when it occurs. It will not do much good to tell John, as he is getting on the bus to go home, that he did a good job that morning.

Above all, the rewards which the instructional team gives John when he acts appropriately must be more appealing than the rewards gained by John when he acts inappropriately. In John's case, it would be probably best to intervene and not let his bullying tactics be successful. A member of the educational team would say in a calm firm voice, "That is not the right way to ask for things, John please come to my desk and let's see if you can remember how to ask me the right way." If a child refuses, a "cooling off" time may be necessary. But, John should be given the opportunity at some point to behave appropriately and receive praise or reward. Your teachers practices for rewarding students are important strategies for you to learn.

Refining Behaviors

Once a new behavior is learned, the instructional team must provide opportunities for the student to refine the skill. It could be that you want to increase the frequency of the behavior. Even though John may have established a new appropriate behavior in making verbal requests, there is still much instruction necessary. John may have learned to ask for things more appropriately, but he may still have difficulty giving directions to his classmates without being obnoxious. Or, perhaps he is behaving properly in the classroom but regresses back into inappropriate behavior patterns outside at recess.

The ways in which you verbally interact with students can assist greatly in increasing the quality and frequency of a response. Suppose the program manager had a long-range objective for Karen to increase her speech from three or four word phrases to sentences. You can assist Karen in developing this language skill. When you interact with Karen you can ask her questions that require a response on her part, and then reward her for answering. If she responds to your question in phrases, reward her for speaking, but then you should restate her answer as a complete sentence. For example, if you ask Karen what she had for lunch and she says "bologna," you should then respond by saying something like "That's right Karen, you had a bologna sandwich for lunch." The ability to utilize spontaneous social situations like this as learning experiences is a skill for all members of the instructional team to refine.

Behavior change takes time and consistency on your part. Since inappropriate behavior patterns of children took much time to form, they cannot be changed immediately. Nor do all children refine their skills at the same rate or in the same way. Be careful not to abandon what the program manager has decided is a good strategy too soon. Most importantly, never lose confidence in yourself or hope for the child.

Summary

Learning is behavior change. We change behavior through the strategies we use in both formal and informal instruction. Some of these strategies are how we react or do not react to what a student says or does, and how we vary the use and sequence of materials and activities. These behavioral and instructional strategies not only assist the student in learning skills and performing tasks related to the skills, but it makes the learning experience a pleasurable and rewarding one for the student.

ASSIST Activity 22: *Strategies*—Unit 4

Objective: To select appropriate strategies to assist or reinforce a student in achieving a skill.

1. John is an 6 year old mildly handicapped student. Although he dresses himself alone, he cannot button the 3/4 inch buttons on his jacket. Your teacher has determined that although John can grasp medium size objects, he has some difficulty manipulating small ones. Still, she feels he is ready to learn this skill. She also knows that John responds well to praise. She asks for your suggestions in helping John develop this new behavior.

Select the most appropriate method of helping John learn this skill:

a) Have John wear his jacket an hour each day and assist him in putting the button through the hole, saying all the time, "Good job, John".
b) You wear a jacket with 3/4 inch buttons and keep buttoning and unbuttoning it to show him how to do it. You are careful to praise him while you do it.
c) Give John a 2-inch button and material with a slit in it, praise him when he buttons. You move to a 1 1/2 inch, 1 inch, and the 3/4 inch button, and finally to his coat—rewarding him at each step.

2. You have read about some of the ways you can increase the frequency or improve the quality of a behavior. This activity will give you opportunity to examine how you can use strategies such as cueing in actual instruction. Below are a series of dialogues between instructional associates and students. In each case, select the response which you believe to be the most appropriate one.

a) You and Danny are in a money-changing lesson. You ask Danny to count 20¢ in nickels. In error he counts 25¢ worth of nickels.
You say:
1) "No, Danny you did it wrong."
2) "Here, let me do it."
3) "Why don't we try this another way?"

b) You are having a language stimulation lesson with Maria who is bilingual but is learning to speak standard English. You are using pictures of the class picnic as part of your materials. You show her a picture and say, "Who is that in the picture with you, Maria?" Maria responds, "Bob, Jeanne and Mike." You then say:
1) "Very good, Maria."
2) "Good, Maria. That's Bob, Jeanne and Mike with you."
3) Nothing—go on to the next picture.

ASSIST Activity 22:
1. c
2. a) 3
b) 2

Instructional Unit 5

LESSON PLANNING

INTRODUCTION

The instructional process flows nicely from one component to the next, each building upon the previous one. In order to develop a lesson plan you will use the knowledge and skills you have gained from each of the previous components of the instructional process.

Each component has been a step towards refining information about your students and planning appropriately for them. Assessment provided the program manager with indications of what the student needs to learn in the individualized educational program. Development of long-range objectives provided a general framework to follow. The short-range objectives further refined the information into specific orderly steps. Both the long-range and short-range objectives refined the information gathered from assessment, and this information was further refined by the process known as task analysis. In addition, information pertaining to the type of reinforcers to use, how the physical surroundings affect the student's learning, and the type of cues used to elicit desired behaviors have been gathered for your students. Finally, all of this information has been gathered for a particular student and for a specific educational task.

Now, how can you effectively use this information in an organized way? The information about each student and her educational program has been collected, developed, and refined. One method of organizing all of this information into a usable format is to develop lesson plans.

Lesson plans are written descriptions of the day to day instructional activities produced by the teacher to meet the classroom objectives.

If you are a new instructional associate, your teacher will probably produce all lesson plans. It may be that if you are highly trained or experienced, you may even assist the teacher in this effort. In all cases, you will assist the teacher by implementing lesson plans which she has developed. To do this, you must be able to translate your teacher's lesson plans into action. At first, it may be difficult for you to understand what you are supposed to do from the teacher's lesson plan, but after working together awhile, you will be able to act more independently.

Behavioral Objective:

1. At the end of this unit, you will be able to identify all of the components of the instructional process and discuss their relationship.
2. At the end of this unit, you will be able to explain the reasons for developing lesson plans.
3. At the end of this unit, you will be able to assist the program manager in writing a lesson plan for an individual student or a small group of students.

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LESSON PLANNING

You will find that your best friend in the classroom is the lesson plan. Lesson plans provide the members of the instructional team with a guide which outlines the daily methods used to reach the specific objectives developed for each student. This guide indicates *how* an objective will be met by describing the sequence of activities, the materials to be used, and the possible instructional strategies. By outlining a plan for the activities, each member of the instructional team is able to see what is to be accomplished and how it is to be accomplished.

When lesson plans are developed with the long and short range objectives in mind, they enable the program manager to group students according to the students' needs. If more than one student has the same short-range objective, these students can be grouped together for instruction, depending upon the task which is being taught. Possibly, if a group of students have short-range objectives in the same instructional area, the students can be grouped together, even though each student may be at different levels in the objective. It is also possible that while students may be grouped together, each may use the materials somewhat differently. This approach allows the program manager to be very flexible in the development of instructional groups. Such groups can possibly change daily as different students master objectives at differing rates.

It is the purpose of this Instructional Unit to provide you with both the knowledge and skill to develop lesson plans. You will now be able to use the information you have gained in the previous sections of the instructional process to help the program manager design lesson plans. With this new knowledge and skill, you can develop skills in actually developing lesson plans in cooperation with the program manager.

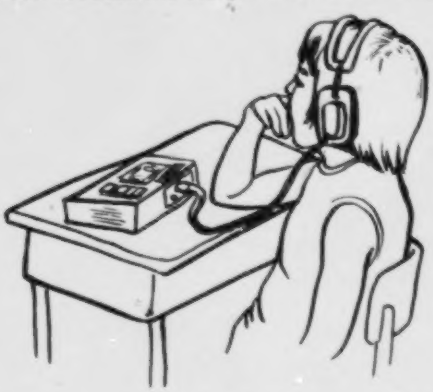
It is not the purpose of this section to suggest any particular format for writing a lesson plan. Each program manager has her own way of putting it all together. What is convenient for one program manager may be difficult for another. The particular format is not so important as the components which make up the lesson plan. For example, it would be futile to present a specific format when one program manager functions best with daily lesson plans and another program manager works more effectively with plans which include two or more days, or even longer. Each program manager is different, just as the individuals in your classroom are different.

ASSIST will describe for you very comprehensively the different components which may be included in lesson plans to give you a wide perspective. Undoubtedly, your teacher's lesson plans will not be so detailed. She has too many duties to do to write lesson plans so thoroughly. She may do all of the procedures discussed in this unit, but mav not have time to write them all down for you. As you work with her, you will become knowledgeable of all the procedures she uses and how she writes them into lesson plans.

Common Parts of Lesson Plans

When conceptuatizing a lesson plan, the program manager bases instructional planning upon learning and instructional objectives designed to fulfill individual student needs. This, of course, means that major components incorporated into your lesson plan, regardless of the format, are the long-range objectives and the short-range objectives. It is necessary to know what the student already knows. Thus, pre-requisite skills are another common component of a lesson plan.

A variety of activities, resources, and techniques for instruction is necessary to reach the short-range objectives. It is also necessary to sequence the materials to be used in order to comply with the short-range objectives. The sequence of activities that make up the lesson can involve many activities spread over a long time interval or few activities spread over a short time interval. Your teacher may develop a very short "diagnostic" lesson to assess one child's skill on a particular task based upon one short-range objective and one activity. For example, given the short-range objective: After listening to a pre-recorded story on a cassette recorder, the student will be able to retell the story in her own words, the lesson plan would consist of that one activity using the described materials alone. On the other hand, the teacher may construct very lengthy "unit" plans which may cover a week, a month, or longer for a large group of children. For example, she may devise a science unit plan over plants and animals. This lesson may encompass many short-range objectives, the use of many different materials, the coordination of different people to implement the activities, and a lengthy series of activities designed to meet the different needs of individual students. It is usually helpful, therefore,to state the length of the lesson as a part of the lesson plan. More than one activity can be used to accomplish the same short-range objective. For instance, if the program manager developed a short-range objective concerned with following directions, she could engage the student in "follow the leader," "Simon says," building a model airplane, etc. As many activities can accomplish the same objective, the same activity can accomplish many objectives. Building a model airplane from written directions could fulfill objectives concerning following directions, reading silently, using fine motor skills, working independently, etc. The same activities can also be modified slightly to meet the needs of



students at different skill levels. The number of activities to reach a certain objective and the number of activities that can be reached by any one activity is limited only by the imagination of the members of the instructional team.

Also, the same materials may be used to accomplish many of the objectives. For example, materials for language can be utilized to include counting and motor activities. Again, the different uses of commercial materials, commercially adapted, or your own materials is limited only by the imagination of the instructional team. You should be very familiar with the inventory of materials available in your classroom and school. Locating and preparing materials for the day's lessons, for enhancing the classroom decor, etc. are important ongoing responsibilities to be fulfilled.

The school library, for instance, can be a valuable source of materials. You should know where the audio-visual equipment (Filmstrip projectors, overhead projectors, etc.) and the duplicating equipment (ditto machines, mimeograph machines, etc.) are located and how to use them. As you go shopping in the community, you may see items that would be helpful in the classroom. By sharing this information with your teacher, you may give her new ideas for her lesson plans.

Finally, the lesson plan also provides a basis for evaluation of a student's performance. As you work through the sequence of activities, using the various materials necessary and reinforcing the student when appropriate, you can pinpoint those times when the student performed the task and the point at which the student began to have difficulty with the task. In this way, the next lesson plan can include those activities, materials and reinforcements that were helpful and exclude those that proved to be frustrating and ineffective. Each area of the lesson plan can be changed in order to improve the chances that the student will succeed at any given task.

What has been stated so far is that the particular format of a lesson plan is not so important as the common components which make up a lesson plan. Many of these common components you already know about since they incorporate concepts from previous sections. These components are progressive in nature in that they build upon each other and culminate in a lesson plan.

A review of the common components of a lesson plan include the following:

1. Prerequisite skills
2. Long and short-range objectives
3. Length of lesson
4. Sequence of activities to reach the short-range objective
5. Sequence of materials to be used
6. Potential instructional strategies
7. Evaluation

Here is an example of a lesson plan for you to examine. Remember that the format is not important. Your responsibility is to become knowledgeable of and be able to use your program manager's format. Remember, also, that the detail is intentionally excessive to give you a comprehensive understanding at what can be involved in lesson planning.

LESSON PLAN

Students: Tommy, Frank, Sharon, Shelly
Long-range Objective: Know importance of good diet
Short-range Objective: Distinguish 5 food groups
Prerequisite Skills: Identify pictures of variety of food, count to 5, associate, and categorize, point or pronounce names of foods, memory
Length of Lesson: 30 minutes

Sequence of Activities	Materials	Strategies
1. Ask student to name some foods that build a strong body.	Felt-tip pen, paper or chalk & chalkboard.	Encourage by asking for foods he ate at breakfast, lunch, etc.
2. Ask student to place his list of foods just named into 5 categories of foods.	Food group chart, felt-tip pen, paper.	praise
3. Find 2 pictures of foods representing each food groups.	Magazines, scissors	praise
4. Ask students to name 3 fruits, 3 meats, 3 vegetables, 3 dairy products.	Felt-tip pen, paper, or chalk and chalkboard.	Encourage by giving hints and descriptions or favorite ones & why.
5. Make a health notebook using the pictures in activity #4.	Folder, paste or tape, pictures.	Praise and reward by grade, free time, display, etc.

Classroom Organization

Every program manager attempts to arrange the classroom in a way that helps her implement her lessons best. Different seating arrangements, displays of materials, and classroom

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decorations are part of this effort. In some classrooms, different learning centers are set up for the different skill areas. For example, there may be a reading center where the reading materials are stored and displayed, a science center with the science displays and equipment, a "time out" center for disruptive children, etc. In other classrooms, the teacher may choose not to have such centers, but will organize the children for these types of learning activities as the need arises. As you gain experience in the classroom, the teacher may experiment with different classroom arrangements in order to utilize your talents more fully. The better you understand why the teacher has arranged the classroom as she has, the better you will be able to anticipate her needs and provide appropriate strategies for students.

Summary

Lesson plans are a major outcome of the instructional process. The lesson plan organizes all the previous steps: assessment, objectives, strategies, etc. into learning activities appropriate to the children's needs. Much of what you and the teacher do during the day involves providing these activities for the students to accomplish.

Lesson plans vary greatly according to the number of children doing the activity, the length of time it takes to do the lesson, etc. Each teacher writes lesson plans somewhat differently, also. You should learn what lesson plan components your teacher uses, emphasizes, etc. You need to know how the teacher sequences the activities, uses the available materials, and organizes the classroom to deliver the instructional activities.

As you gain experience, the teacher will use your assistance in implementing lesson plans to a greater degree. If you are a highly trained and experienced person, the teacher may even ask you to help devise lesson plans for students. Lesson planning is a burdensome task for teachers. The more you can help, the more appreciated you will be.

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ASSIST Activity 23: *Lesson Planning*—Unit 5

Objective: To demonstrate skill in developing a lesson plan.

Select a child with whom you work. Develop a short lesson plan utilizing the previous steps involved in the instructional process.

LESSON PLAN

Student:
Long-Range Objective:
Short-Range Objective:
Pre-requisite Skill:

Length of Lesson:

Sequence of Activities	*Materials*	*Strategies*

EVALUATION:

Sample Form 4

ASSIST Activity 23:

Answers are specific to your situation

Instructional Unit 6

LESSON EVALUATION

INTRODUCTION

Evaluation may be considered a final step in the instructional process. It does not mean "the end," however, because it also indicates a point where a new lesson will begin. By now you are aware of how each step in the process depends on, or is related to, the steps before it. Short-range objectives are derived from long-range objectives or goals. Long-range objectives are determined from information gained at the assessment stage. To implement these objectives, decisions with respect to grouping of students, materials, activities and strategies are made and included in the lesson plan. You will recall that the lesson plan is a guide for you to follow. It also is a guide for your evaluation of that lesson. This unit will familiarize you with the process of evaluation and the importance of further development of lessons based upon the evaluation. It is an important and necessary step for you to master as an effective member of the instructional team.

Behavioral Objective:

At the end of this unit, you will be able to distinguish between on-going and final evaluation, and utilize a materials checklist and a lesson plan evaluation form after instruction.

LESSON EVALUATION

Like most of the other components of the instructional process, evaluation activities are a part of our daily lives. In fact, they are so much a part of our everyday life that we usually take evaluation for granted. For example, we evaluate or judge movies we see, music we hear, and the books we read. We make snap judgments about other persons based upon our first impressions of them. People talk about "love at first sight?" What about that particular person who "turned you off" the minute you met? The point is, we may not give much conscious thought to our judgments or evaluations. We are usually not even aware of our evaluations until someone else asks us our opinion, or makes a comment about something.

Sometimes we make judgments while we are involved in the process of an activity. For example, have you ever asked yourself while sitting in a movie theater, "Why am I sitting here watching this terrible movie?" Have you ever been at a party and thought to yourself, "This is the dullest party I've ever been to."

Similarly, evaluation of instruction has two aspects. One is evaluation as instruction is taking place. This type of evaluation is referred to as on-going evaluation. The other aspect is evaluation after the instruction is completed. This type of evaluation is called final evaluation.

On-Going Evaluation

Any instructional activity should continually be evaluated while the activity is in progress. The educational team members should evaluate what is being said, what is being done, how the activities and materials are working, and how they effect the student's performance on a given task. This means that you must be flexible and ready to change the nature of the lesson at any time to assist the student in reaching the stated objective.

If you are in the process of teaching a lesson and you notice that the students are not responding to the materials, then you should ask yourself:

1. How am I presenting the materials?
2. Am I giving the students the opportunity to respond?
3. Am I doing most of the talking?
4. Am I rewarding the students when they talk?
5. Are the materials appropriate for the students?
6. Is the activity appropriate?
7. Am I teaching what I intended to teach?

Evaluation during the lesson involves judgments about how well the activities and materials are working, judgments about a student's response, and even judgments about how you as the program manager or instructional associate are doing. These combined evaluations during an instructional activity will provide you with the opportunity to make changes as the lesson is occurring and thereby help the students reach their objectives.

Final Evaluation

Once the lesson has ended, you must take the time to evaluate in a systematic manner what happened during the lesson. Evaluation of a completed lesson is a more formal process. It has a direct relationship to what may be taught next and how you will go about teaching it. When the student reaches the objective, the program manager can determine the next instructional objective. If the student did not reach the objective, you should provide the program manager with information as to possible reasons for this. It could be that the objective was inappropriate. If the student has not progressed at all over time, or if you are still providing too much assistance, then there may be a need to re-examine the objective. Perhaps the skill needs to be broken down into even more discrete steps for teaching.

Each day you will be involved in some aspect of formal instruction relating to students' objectives. To increase the effectiveness of instruction you should examine what happens on a daily basis in instruction. Final evaluation consists of asking yourself, a series of questions pertaining to yourself, the students and the materials. The amount of time you spend in evaluation, sharing information with your teacher, and recording results in writing will depend, as always, on your school situation. Whenever possible, some time during the school day should be used for discussing what activities work, what activities didn't work, and why.

Self-evaluation

Everyone likes and needs to know how they are performing in their job. As an instructional person you need to know about your effectiveness and about possible changes you can make to become even more effective. However, it is always difficult to evaluate yourself. Just as your teacher may request that you observe her to give her information and feedback on her effectiveness, you should ask your teacher to observe you while teaching. When you first begin teaching, this may seem somewhat frightening. Very few of us like to be watched, but if it is done with the right attitude, it will certainly be a beneficial experience. In fact, doing this when you first begin your instructional responsibilities is probably the best time, because then you won't have the opportunity to develop inappropriate habits that will be difficult to change later. In addition to observation, you must ask questions about yourself as an instructor, such as:

- Did I communicate to the students the objectives of the lesson?
- Did I reward at the right time and in the right way?
- How did I present the materials?
- Did I sequence the activities moving from less difficult to more difficult?
- Did I review at the end of the lesson?
- Was I prepared for the lesson?

Remember, your behavior and the enthusiasm you bring to each activity have an effect upon the outcome of the lesson. But there are other aspects of the lesson you must carefully examine, such as the materials and the sequence of the activities.

Evaluation of Materials and Activities

Although time was spent prior to implementing the lesson on deciding the appropriate materials and activities for the student, things don't always turn out as planned. Perhaps, instead of enhancing the lessons, the materials were distracting to the student or your directions on how to use the materials were unclear. A Material Checklist has been included at the end of this chapter as a guide for selecting and evaluating materials that you use in instruction.

The way you structure activities is another aspect of the lesson to which you should give some thought. How much student involvement was there? Did the student have the opportunity to progress from something she knew to a new task? For example, if you are teaching a lesson on musical notation, you could teach the children the notes of a song they already know.

Keep in mind that when and where you teach have an effect upon the outcome of the lesson. Mid-afternoon or just before lunch are probably not the best times to be involved in a complicated or difficult task. Both you and the student are probably hungry, tired, or both. Perhaps changing the physical location of the lesson can have an effect on performance. If you are in the hottest or noisiest part of the room, a change in location may make a big difference.

In evaluating your lesson, give some thought to the student's response or lack of response. If the objective was appropriate, and the physical or verbal cues which you gave were appropriate for the student, then again you must examine the materials, activities, and physical conditions of the lesson. An evaluation form has been provided at the end of this chapter which will serve as a guide for you in evaluating your instructional activities. Use it on a regular basis for your own development as an instructional person and for the benefit of the students. The degree your educational team will be able to record results of evaluations of materials and instructional activities will depend on the time your team can afford for such efforts and gains in evaluation skills which you make.

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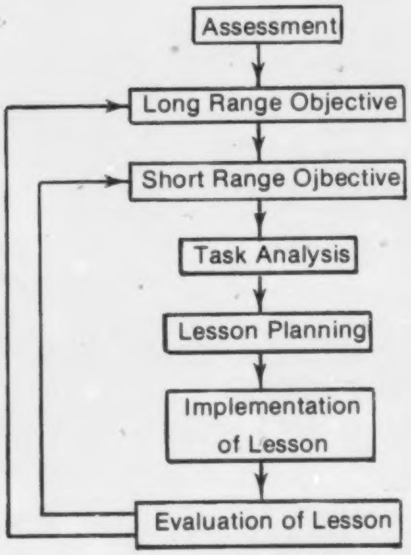
Summary

Evaluation is a systematic process which provides the instructional team with information for future instructional programs. After you have evaluated the lesson, modifications in materials, activities, rewards and cues can be made. Possible modification in program objectives may also result from lesson evaluation. While evaluation is the last step in the process, it really begins the process over again. The evaluation information feeds back into long range and/or short range objectives at which point the program managers again begin to plan for future instructional needs. Below is a diagram which indicates how evaluation of lessons gives the program manager information to use in the development or modification of a student's long and short term objectives.

Relationship of Evaluation to Program Planning


Assessment
Long Range Objective
Short Range Ojbective
Task Analysis
Lesson Planning
Implementation of Lesson
Evaluation of Lesson

ASSIST Activity 25: *Evaluation*—Unit 6

Objective:* *To demonstrate skill in evaluating a lesson plan.

Implement and evaluate the lesson you devised in ASSIST Activity 24.

LESSON EVALUATION FORM

Objectives:

Was the objective appropriate? Yes _____ No _____
Was the objective achieved? Yes _____ No _____
Did you let the student know what the objective was? Yes _____ No _____

Strategies:

Did you reward for each correct response? Yes _____ No _____
Did you provide appropriate physical or verbal cues? Yes _____ No _____
Did you vary your talking and question-asking procedures? Yes _____ No _____
Did you sequence activities from simple to difficult? Yes _____ No _____

Materials:

Were materials appropriate to the task? Yes _____ No _____
Were materials age appropriate for student? Yes _____ No _____
Did you vary the use of the materials? Yes _____ No _____

Student:

Did student attend to task? Yes _____ No _____

If No:

When did she stop attending?
Were there possible nearby distractions? Yes _____ No _____
Did she attend when you varied your strategies? Yes _____ No _____

Sample Form 5

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS CHECKLIST

CONSTRUCTION:	YES	NO
Is it DURABLE?		
Is it REUSABLE?		
Is it SAFE?		
Can it BE MODIFIED for another student?		
Is it easily STORABLE?		

USAGE:

How much instruction is necessary?

Can it be used with a group?

Can it be used with an individual?

COMMENTS:

EVALUATION:

What other material could have been used?

Was the material difficult for the child?

How many different ways can the material be used?

COMMENTS:

Sample Form 6

ASSIST Activity 25:

Answers are specific to your situation

NOTES:

BEGINNINGS

Your *Sourcebook* was dedicated to the process of change. We believe that as an instructional associate, you can be a changing force in the lives of individuals who have been labeled handicapped. We also hope that through ASSIST that you have changed — that through your pre- and in-service training you have gained knowledge and skills to become a complementary and valued person to your teacher.

However, your learning and growth as an instructional associate does not end with this program. ASSIST is only a beginning. You should continue to build on knowledge and skills you have gained from this training. It is through the dedication and enthusiasm of all the members of the educational team that a new world of acceptance for the handicapped can be achieved.

SUPPLEMENTARY FILMS: DESCRIPTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

ASSIST FILMS: Mainstreaming

REEL #1: *Pre-Service Films*

1. *Overview to ASSIST* (6 minutes)

This film describes the purpose and intent of Project ASSIST. It focuses on the role of the teacher as a Program Manager and the paraprofessional as an Instructional Associate with particular emphasis on the variety of materials and media available for pre- and inservice training.

2. *The Changing Field of Special Education* (8 minutes)

The individuality and worth of all members of society and the need to avoid stereotypic thinking are emphasized. The cross-cultural nature of our society is positively discussed. The paraprofessional's roles as child advocate and as a vital element in the mainstreaming movement are highlighted.

REEL #2: *Inservice Films*

1. *ASSIST Instructional Film: Assessment — Tina* (18 minutes)

An intermediate grade child who exhibits inattentive, disruptive, and interruptive classroom behaviors is portrayed within regular and resource room settings. The educational team must informally assess the child's behavior giving consideration to situational factors. Two other films follow Tina through the instructional process.

2. *ASSIST Instructional Film: Assessment — Billy* (6 minutes)

A child with difficulties in mathematical computation is portrayed working on a multiplication worksheet under the supervision of the instructional associate. Informal assessment and positive human relationships are emphasized.

REEL #3: *Inservice Films*

1. *ASSIST Instructional Film: Devising an Educational Plan — Tina* (10 minutes)

The film depicts Tina's instructors; a resource room teacher, a regular room teacher, and the instructional associate devising appropriate educational objectives and lessons in a teacher's lounge.

2. *ASSIST Instructional Film: Implementation and Evaluation of the Educational Program — Tina* (10 minutes)

Tina attempts two diagnostic teaching lessons devised by the educational team. One lesson involving peer cooperation fails but the other involving on-task academic behavior succeeds. The film ends with an evaluation session between the teacher and the instructional associate. This film completes the sequences of the instructional process which began in the first Tina film.

ASSIST Film Activity 1: *Assessment*—Unit, Reel #2

After discussing Tina's classroom behavior with your program manager, list your major observations. Be as thorough as possible including such areas as Tina's interests, learning style, strengths, weaknesses, etc.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5
6.
7.
8.
9.
10.

ASSIST Film Activity 1:

Examples:

1. Tina is inattentive
2. Tina bullies other children
3. Tina hates reading
4. Tina seems bored
5. Tina does not work well independently

ASSIST Film Activity 2: *Assessment*—Unit 1, Reel #2

At the start of the film, the following information from Tina's file was provided:

1. I.Q. score
2. Attendance record
3. Report card
4. Metropolitan Achievement Test score—reading
5. Metropolitan Achievement Test score—math
6. Past teacher anecdotal record.

Which information is formal assessment information? Which information is informal assessment information?

Formal

1.
2.
3.

Inflormal

1.
2.
3.

ASSIST Film Activity 2:

Formal: 1, 4, 5
Informal: 2, 3, 6

ASSIST Film Activity 3: *Assessment*—Unit 2, Reel #2

Now you are ready to observe the film Assessment—Billy with your program manager. Below is the checklist that you will use for Billy *during the film.* Acquaint yourself with the checklist *before* you observe the film. Then check the appropriate boxes *as you watch the film.*

Student: Billy	Yes	No	Sometimes
1) Can multiply one digit numerals by a one digit numeral (e.g., 5 × 3)			
2) Can multiply 2 digit numerals by a one digit numeral (e.g., 15 × 6).			
3) Can multiply 3 digit numerals by a one digit numeral (e.g., 264 × 8).			
4) Can multiply 2 digit numerals by 2 digit numerals (e.g., 24 × 28).			

ASSIST Film Activity

1) yes 2) sometimes 3) sometimes 4) no

ASSESSMENT Film Activity 4: *Assessment*—Unit 1, Reel #2

Objective: To be able to derive information from a child's answers.

Billy attempted the following problems but could not achieve the correct answer.

$$\begin{array}{rrcrr} & 6 & & & 2 \\ 6. & 17 & & 9. & 507 \\ & \times 9 & & & \times 4 \\ \cline{2-2} \cline{5-5} & 163 & & & 8 \end{array}$$

Conduct an error analysis with the program manager. From your observations, what are the possibilities for Billy's difficulty with problem 6? Problem 9?

ASSESSMENT Film Activity 4:

Problem 6:
From Billy's ability to do similar problems, it seems that Billy just added 6 + 9 incorrectly.

Problem 9:
The zero in the ten column seemed to have confused Billy. He probably needs instruction regarding regrouping ("carrying") with zeros in the tens column of three digit multiplicands.

ASSIST Film Activity 5: *Long-Range Objectives*—Unit 2, Reel #3

Objective: To be able to devise long-range objectives

With your program manager you listed some major observations regarding Tina for ASSIST Film Activity 1. Now, devise long-range objectives based upon the observations of your educational team.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.

Compare your objectives with the educational team's objectives in the film.

ASSIST Film Activity 5:

Examples:

1. To increase attentiveness to the instruction.
2. To eliminate Tina's bullying behavior/increase peer cooperation.
3. To enhance Tina's enthusiasm for reading.
4. To enhance Tina's general attitude toward school.
5. To increase Tina's on-task behavior when unsupervised.

ASSIST Film Activity 6: *Short-Range Objectives*—Unit 3, Reel #3

Objective: To be able to devise short-range objectives from long-range objectives.

You devised long-range objectives for Tina for Tina for ASSIST Film Activity 5. Now, devise one short-range objective from each long-range objective that you devised.

1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.

ASSIST Film Activity 6:

Two short range objectives could be:

1. Given a high interest story, Tina will give evidence of reading the story by verbally retelling the story in her own words.
2. Given a set of 20 multiplication flash cards presented by a classmate, Tina will complete all the cards while cooperating with a classmate.

ASSIST Film Activity 7: *Instructional Strategies*—Unit 4, Reel #3

Objective: To be able to devise general and specific instructional strategies.

With your program manager, discuss general and specific instructional strategies which may increase the chances that your objectives for Tina will work. Be sure to discuss why you think Tina behaves as she does.

General: 1.
2.
Specific: 1.
2.

At this time, view with your program manager the film, "Divising an Educational Plan." Afterwards, compare and discuss your educational team's observations, objectives, and strategies with those described in the film.

ASSIST Film Activity 7:

Strategies devised by the educational team in the film were:

1. Tina should no longer be in an oral reading group.
2. Ms. Hunt should try to remain as close to Tina as possible and therefore various seating arrangements would be changed.
3. They needed to better integrate the resource room—regular classroom reading instruction. Ms. Clark agreed to provide high interest reading activities for Tina's use in the regular class.
4. They would provide high interest activities where Tina would have to cooperate with a classmate in order to provide the educational team chances to reward Tina for peer cooperation.
5. They would use the opportunity to listen to popular recordings as a reward for Tina.

FILM: IMPLEMENTATION AND EVALUATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM—TINA

ASSIST Film Activity 8: *Lesson Evaluation*—Unit 6, Reel #3

Objective: To be able to informally evaluate implemented lessons.

View the film, "Implementation and Evaluation of an Educational Program—Tina" with your program manager. You will be instructed during the film to turn off the projector and evaluate the lessons presented. Then, you will be asked to turn the projector back on to observe the manner in which the educational team in the film evaluated the lessons. Compare your discussion with that team's discussion. Briefly discuss what might be done next to serve Tina better.

This activity concludes your training. ASSIST truly hopes your training has been relevant, worthwhile, and enjoyable.

ASSIST Film Activity 8:

1. The first lesson went well. The reward was very effective.
2. In the second lesson, the team failed to anticipate Tina's reaction to missing some of the problems. More effort needed to be made to ensure initial success experience.

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